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ABSTRACT

A guide is designed for elementary school teachers with handicapped students in their classrooms. Seven sections comprise the document. Section I discusses the implications of mainstreaming for classroom teachers. Discussed are 1) the physical and social isolation of the handicapped students in the 1960s; 2) the impact of Public Law 94-142 which underscores the rights of these children to public education in a setting which includes children who are not handicapped; 3) practical and ethical considerations; and 4) identification of the handicapped. Section II lists social studies goals for the handicapped learner relative to knowledge, skills, values, and social participation. Section III discusses social studies instruction for handicapped students with learning disabilities, hearing impairments, emotional handicaps, visual impairment, speech and language disorders, and physical disabilities, and for those who are mentally retarded. Section IV provides methods of assessing achievement in relation to the goals stated in Section II. Section V discusses providing for individual differences by listing sources of help for teachers (peer tutors, cross-age tutors, and volunteers) and strategies such as grouping. Section VI suggests teaching "regular students" about handicapping conditions through learning experiences, children's books, films and videotapes, and simulations. A brief list of resources is provided. The final section presents evaluations of social studies textbooks and federally funded curriculum projects for the handicapped. Related resources available from ERIC and Exceptional Child Education Resources (ECER) are listed. (KC)

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SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE MAINSTREAMED CLASSROOM, K-6

By

Anna S. Ochoa and Susan K. Shuster

Social Science Education Consortium, Inc.

ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education

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PREFACE

The passage in 1975 of Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, has had a profound effect on public education. In 1977-78, according to figures compiled by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, more than 2.5 million youngsters identified as "handicapped" were being taught in regular classrooms--68 percent of all the handicapped children in the United States.

While few people would argue with the general intent of PL 94-142--to ensure that handicapped children are educated in the "least restrictive environment" that will accommodate their academic, social, and physical needs--there is no doubt that this new mandate has created enormous pressures and challenges for teachers and administrators. Some help has been provided in the form of federal grants and awards for training school personnel and purchasing special materials. Yet there is near-unanimous agreement that teachers need a lot more help--particularly in adapting regular classroom materials and activities for children with special problems.

"For PL 94-142 to work," observe the authors of *Special Education Market Report* (published in August 1978 by LINC Services, the Market Linkage Project for Special Education), "teacher concerns and needs must be conquered. . . . Everyone will benefit if teachers working with handicapped children in the regular classroom setting have confidence and knowledge from the beginning." Our sponsorship of Project MAVIS (Materials Adaptations for Visually Impaired Students in the Social Studies) has made us keenly aware of the needs and concerns of teachers in mainstreamed classrooms which include children with vision problems. The visually handicapped, however, represent less than 1 percent of all the handicapped youngsters who are being mainstreamed. How can teachers cope with other handicapping conditions while delivering effective social studies instruction? How can they modify their social studies programs to allow for the special needs of children with hearing impairments, learning disabilities, speech disorders? How can social studies lessons be adapted for children with multiple handicaps, or for several children with different kinds of disabilities? How much do teachers need to know about disabilities that affect students in their classes, and where can they go to get such information?

The authors of this book, colleagues at Indiana University, set out to answer these questions. Anna Ochoa is a prominent social studies

educator and past president of the National Council for the Social Studies. Susan Shuster's area of expertise is special education. Both have written extensively in their separate fields; they report that their collaboration on this cross-disciplinary project has been enlightening and productive. We hope that it has resulted in a useful resource for elementary teachers who want to do a good job of teaching social studies to children in mainstreamed classrooms.

Irving Morrissett

Executive Director, Social Science Education Consortium, Inc.

Director, ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education

FOREWORD

Classroom teachers who are trying to provide appropriate learning experiences for their students have many decisions to make about what to teach, how to teach, when to teach, and how to measure learning outcomes. Related decisions involve the selection of materials and the physical arrangements of the room. Each occasion for a decision requires an analysis of alternatives and an awareness of the positive and negative consequences of each alternative.

Now place the teacher in the same environment but add several children who are handicapped, who have special learning needs. The array of decisions becomes more complex, because another dimension to the process has been added: the need to modify instructional strategies, curriculum materials, and behavior management techniques to meet these special needs.

Handicapped children must work harder than their nonhandicapped peers. They face two kinds of problems: first, their individual disabilities; and, second, social reactions to their disabilities. These two problems together result in the labeling of such people as "handicapped." Parents, teachers, and other professionals must help handicapped children achieve their personal goals and at the same time educate others to allow them to enter the "mainstream" of society.

This publication is designed to enhance the decision-making ability of elementary-level teachers who have handicapped students in their classrooms. Its goal is to facilitate the implementation of a conceptually sound social studies curriculum, while recognizing the unique instructional demands that handicapped students present. The implementation of such a program will not be easy. Regular classroom teachers will need help from special-education resource personnel, and it is imperative that such assistance be available.

Not all handicapped children who are placed in a regular classroom will benefit from the experience, and the learning needs of nonhandicapped children must not be overlooked. The integration of handicapped students into regular classes will be facilitated only if the classroom teacher is encouraged to explore alternatives and is afforded administrative support in making decisions about an educational process for which "success" is difficult, if not impossible, to predict.

* * * * * * * * *

The authors wish to thank Len Martelli and Rosemary O'Connell of the McGraw-Hill Book Company for their help in arranging permission for us to reproduce the seven lessons from the McGraw-Hill Social Studies program which were selected for adaptation in Chapter 3. We would also like to acknowledge the contributions of Cynthia L. Groman, who assisted in the preparation of Chapter 7; Susan Foyle, who typed drafts of the manuscript; Miriam Gingras, who typed the final camera-ready copy; and the representatives of the National Council for the Social Studies who reviewed the manuscript and made constructive suggestions for revisions and additions.

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September 1979

1. MAINSTREAMING: IMPLICATIONS FOR CLASSROOM TEACHING

The movement to integrate handicapped children with the majority of their peers within a regular educational setting is known as *mainstreaming*. Some handicapped children have participated in regular classes for many years. However, since the passage of Public Law 94-142 in 1975, many more handicapped children are being placed in such settings. The law specifies procedural safeguards in terms both of placement and of an instructional program that will enhance the appropriateness of the educational setting.

Data from the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped (BEH) showing the number of handicapped children in regular classes during the school year 1977-78 appear in Table 1 and Table 2.

These data indicate that:

--Most speech-impaired children receive their education in regular classrooms (93.7%).

--A majority of learning-disabled children were taught in regular classrooms (80.7%).

--A regular classroom setting was the placement for 40-60 percent of the following: visually handicapped (58.7%), other health-impaired (50.5%), hard of hearing (47.0%), emotionally disturbed (43.6%).

--Because of the high incidence of speech-impaired and learning-disabled children and the high percentage of these children in regular classes, they accounted for 78.6 percent of all handicapped students in regular classrooms.

--In any given mainstreamed class, one would be most likely to find a speech-impaired child or a learning-disabled child.

--Regular classrooms enrolled 68 percent of all handicapped students.

In what other environments were handicapped children placed, and what do those data suggest?

--Almost twice as many mentally retarded children received their education in separate classes as were educated in regular classrooms (57.1% versus 32.1%). By implication, it would appear that those who were mainstreamed may have been the more mildly retarded, while the moderately and severely retarded students were maintained in separate classes; in all probability the profoundly retarded were in separate school facilities (9.2%).

--The emotionally disturbed children who were mainstreamed (43.6%) were comparable in number to those who were taught in separate classes

(39.8%); 12.8 percent were in entirely separate school facilities. Here, again, one can speculate that the mildly disturbed or less-difficult children were being mainstreamed and the others were not.

--Of the deaf, very few were mainstreamed (17.9%) in comparison to those in separate classes (38.6%) and in separate school facilities

Table 1

NUMBERS OF CHILDREN (AGE 3-21) IN REGULAR CLASSES, 1977-78

(by handicapping condition)

Disability Category	# of Mainstreamed Children	% of Group in Mainstreamed Classrooms	% of Mainstreamed Disabled Students
Mentally retarded	279,110	32.1	10.9
Hard of hearing	24,675	47.0	1.0
Deaf	4,748	17.9	0.2
Speech-impaired	1,196,838	93.7	46.6
Visually handicapped	20,242	58.7	0.8
Emotionally disturbed	118,759	43.6	4.6
Orthopedically impaired	35,216	38.4	1.4
Other health-impaired	66,902	50.5	2.6
Learning-disabled	820,467	80.7	32.0
Totals:	2,566,957	68.0	100.0

Source: Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Note: The column headed "# of Mainstreamed Children" indicates the numbers of children (aged 3-21) in regular classrooms in U.S. schools in 1977-78 who were categorized as being in each disability category. The figures in the column headed "% of Group in Mainstreamed Classrooms" indicate what percentage of the total number of children in each disability category were being educated in regular classrooms. The figures in the right-hand column indicate the percentages of all handicapped children in mainstreamed settings who fell into the various disability categories; for example, 10.9 percent of *all handicapped children in regular classrooms* were categorized as being mentally retarded.

(39.0%). However, special schools for the deaf have existed throughout the United States for many years.

It will be interesting to see what changes occur in these percentages during the near future. Given the goal of the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare to increase the number of children served from an estimated 3.77 million to 4.1 million by May 1980 (stated in a report prepared by BEH and submitted to Congress in January 1979) and the increased efforts to "mainstream," it appears likely that even higher percentages of some, if not most, categories of the handicapped will eventually be served in regular classes.

The lack of trained personnel remains a major problem, the BEH reports. Universities are not producing enough special-education teachers, and the need for both special preservice courses and inservice training for regular teachers is widespread.

The essential purpose of mainstreaming can perhaps best be understood by taking a look at what used to happen to a "handicapped" youngster in the public school system in comparison to the situation today.

The 1960s: Physical and Social Isolation

The year is 1960, and we find ourselves walking down the hall in an elementary school. We are here to learn about the educational program for children who are impaired or disabled. We are greeted warmly by the building principal and escorted to the basement of the building. There we find a classroom called the "ungraded" room. We are introduced to the teacher and invited to sit in the back of the room, and the principal departs.

As we glance around the room, our eyes settle on a young girl who is diligently working at her desk. She is one of the few girls in the room, and one of the few students who appear to be trying to complete tasks. We learn that Jane, who is 10 years old, has a mild form of cerebral palsy. She has some difficulty in walking, but her biggest problem is related to speech. She is difficult to understand when she speaks, although her comprehension is excellent. She is also very motivated to learn, the teacher explains.

We also learn that there are 15 youngsters enrolled in this classroom. They range in age from 7 to 15 and include physically impaired, emotionally disturbed, and mentally retarded children. Some of the children have more than one impairment. Eight of the children are black.

We begin to ask questions about the placement procedure: "How do youngsters get placed in this room?"

We are told that, typically, these children had presented problems for regular classroom teachers. Perhaps a child's behavior was disturbing to a teacher, or the child was unable to understand what was being said because of a language barrier or an intellectual deficiency. The teacher--probably having sought assistance to no avail--was at a loss as to what to do, and saw the special-education environment as the most appropriate one.

Table 2

ENVIRONMENTS IN WHICH U.S. HANDICAPPED CHILDREN (AGE 3-21) WERE TAUGHT, 1977-78

Disability Category	Regular Classes			Separate Classes			Separate School Facilities			Other Educational Environments			National Totals	
	Number of Children	Row %	Col %	Number of Children	Row %	Col %	Number of Children	Row %	Col %	Number of Children	Row %	Col %	Number of Children	Col %
Mentally Retarded	279,110	32.1	10.9	497,001	57.1	52.6	80,416	9.2	44.0	14,010	1.6	17.8	870,537	23.1
Hard of Hearing	24,675	47.0	1.0	17,856	34.0	1.9	9,027	17.2	4.9	929	1.8	1.2	52,487	1.4
Deaf	4,748	17.9	0.2	10,246	38.6	1.1	10,363	39.0	5.7	1,206	4.5	1.5	26,563	0.7
Speech-Impaired	1,196,838	93.7	46.6	64,152	5.0	6.8	8,729	0.7	4.8	7,157	0.6	9.1	1,276,876	33.8
Visually Handicapped	20,242	58.7	0.8	6,519	18.9	0.7	6,278	18.2	3.4	1,462	4.2	1.9	34,501	0.9
Emotionally Disturbed	118,759	43.6	4.6	108,359	39.8	11.5	34,996	12.8	19.2	10,272	3.8	13.0	272,386	7.2
Orthopedically Impaired	35,216	38.4	1.4	27,380	29.9	2.9	7,793	8.5	4.3	21,303	23.2	27.0	91,692	2.4
Other Health-Impaired	66,902	50.5	2.6	36,707	27.7	3.9	9,094	6.9	5.0	19,827	15.0	25.2	132,530	3.5
Learning-Disabled	820,467	80.7	32.0	177,462	17.5	18.8	16,040	1.6	8.8	2,649	0.3	3.4	1,016,618	26.9
TOTALS:	2,566,957	68.0	100.0	945,682	25.1	100.0	182,736	4.8	100.0	78,815	2.1	100.0	3,774,190	100.0

Source: FY 79 Annual Program Plan, Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare; 52 states or jurisdictions reporting. Notes: Each column headed "Row %" indicates the percentages of children with each handicap who are being educated in that setting. Each column headed "Col %" shows the percentages of children with various handicaps of *all handicapped children* who were being taught in that setting. The total number of children reported for this table is not identical with the official child count for 1977-78, which was only 3.55 million. The data for this table are from cumulative counts at year end, which are generally higher than single counts earlier in the year.

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In some cases, we learn, teachers expect inappropriate behavior from children whose older brothers or sisters were assigned to the "ungraded" class. And in fact, we are told, a good number of the students in the special classroom are younger brothers and sisters of former members of that class.

In any event, a teacher with a "problem" child refers the child for testing. By administering an intelligence test, the psychologist or psychometrist seeks to determine whether the child is retarded. If the test score is below a certain level, the child is removed from the regular classroom and placed in the special room.

"But," we ask, "suppose that the examiner is biased, or that the child is not familiar with the language used in the test or is unable to answer in a way that can be understood by the examiner?"

We are assured that those are interesting questions, but told that those concerns are the responsibility of the person administering the test. Placement ultimately depends on the test score, and that score is determined only by the child's performance on the test.

After a child like Jane has been placed in a special classroom, she is the sole responsibility of the special-education teacher. That individual--whose training in special education may be minimal or nonexistent--must provide instruction to 15 children, all of whom have different learning needs and abilities as well as different impairments. The learning materials and books provided for Jane and her classmates are out-of-date ones discarded by the regular classroom teachers. There are a few games and puzzles, but on the whole the room is sparsely equipped.

The social studies curriculum reflects a very low expectation level on the part of the teacher. Jane is provided with lessons that require recall in response to low-level questions. As we observe her, she is attempting to match the names of states with their capitals. In questioning the teacher, we learn that Jane is not provided with opportunities to encourage higher-level conceptual development. The method of teaching is primarily rote learning, with no instruction designed to facilitate the development of thinking skills. The teacher seems ill equipped to provide for individual differences; of the six children who have been assigned the state/capital matching exercise, only Jane appears to be on task. The other youngsters appear to be fidgeting. We cannot determine whether their behavior reflects lack of motivation, inability to understand the directions, frustration with a task that may be too difficult, or boredom.

The social isolation of Jane and her classmates is striking. Jane never leaves the classroom to join other children except for an occasional all-school program in the auditorium. Even at recess or after lunch, the children in this room are required to play in a carefully designated portion of the playground reserved for their class. Their isolation from other children of the same ages is further heightened by the location of the class in the basement; it is the only classroom on that level of the building.

We learn that the children are transported to the school by their parents because the school system provides no special arrangements for impaired children. If the child is not physically and emotionally able to ride the regular school bus, transportation is the responsibility of the parents. If the parents are unable to provide transportation, the child remains at home.

We ask the teacher to share with us whatever concerns or questions Jane's parents have had about her placement in the special class. We are told that parents are never consulted about test results or placement decisions. In Jane's case, her parents were not told about her transfer from a regular classroom to the "ungraded" room until after the move had taken place. Jane's parents made no objection--perhaps knowing that if they challenged the decision, Jane might be denied the opportunity to attend public school. (Families of children with more severe impairments had been told by school administrators that programs were not available for their children--that it was not the responsibility of the public schools to provide education for all children; Jane's parents were delighted that Jane was in school--in any classroom.)

"Does Jane get speech therapy?" we ask. "Are there any special services for these children--physical therapy, occupational therapy, counseling?"

We learn that there are some student support personnel, but that their first responsibility is to the children in regular classes. "However," the teacher remarks, "Jane does see a speech therapist once a month."

"When will Jane have an opportunity to return to a regular classroom?" we wonder. "Will the decision be based on academic accomplishments, social acceptability, or both?"

We learn that there is no systematic procedure for making such a decision. Once a child has been placed in the "ungraded" room, it is likely that the child will remain in special education for the rest of his or her school years.

"But what if the placement decision was a mistake, or a psychologist erred in the computation of a score? Or what if the teacher of the 'ungraded' room feels that a particular child's educational needs would be better met in the regular class with nonhandicapped peers?"

The teacher reflects for a moment. "It is possible to recommend that a child be removed from special education, but the change in placement never happens. The last time I recommended such an action," she observes ruefully, "I was told that I didn't really know what was expected in the regular class, and that I was too emotionally involved with my own student to recognize her severe limitations."

The Impact of Public Law 94-142

Special education in the 1960s and earlier was a physically and socially isolated experience for children. If a child created problems for a teacher, those problems were clearly perceived as the *child's* problems. Few professionals, if any, suggested that such problems might be

a function of a child's learning environment or of the attitudes of those responsible for designing that environment. When children were considered "different," public schools refused to acknowledge their rights to an equal opportunity to learn. By placing all impaired children into the same setting--often referred to as a "dumping ground"--schools projected a twofold but contradictory message: (1) such children were deviant or different from most children and (2) their individual needs could all be met in the same way.

To further strengthen the barriers between the handicapped and the nonhandicapped, children with disabilities were often the victims of prejudice on the part of their nonimpaired peers as well as from insensitive adults. In the absence of opportunities to observe impaired persons in "normal" situations, myths and misunderstandings about handicapping conditions were perpetuated. Institutionalization--or the total isolation of handicapped children from the rest of society--was the only option offered by public education to children who were "special."

The late '60s and early '70s were stormy years for public education in many ways; the courts were forced, time and time again, to make decisions affecting the educational process. Finally, the combination of pressures from the courts, a sociopolitical climate reflecting increasing commitment to the rights of all individuals, and the rising power of parent groups was culminated in the passage of Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975--considered a major victory for impaired students and their families:

> It is the purpose of this Act to assure that all handicapped children have available to them . . . a free appropriate public education which emphasizes special education and related services designed to meet their unique needs, to assure that the rights of handicapped children and their parents or guardians are protected, to assist States and localities to provide for the education of all handicapped children, and to assess and assure the effectiveness of efforts to educate handicapped children.
>
> —Public Law 94-142

This law underscores the rights of all children to a free and appropriate public education. One of its basic themes is the concept of *least-restrictive environment*, a complicated but very important educational term meaning that "among all alternatives for placement within a general education system, handicapped children should be placed where they can obtain the best education at the least distance away from mainstream society" (Molloy 1974, p. 5). For some handicapped children, the least-restrictive environment would be full participation in a regular classroom; for other children, the least-restrictive environment might be a half-day in a special class and a half-day in a regular setting. Stated another way, the "least-restrictive environment" is a setting that facilitates the education of handicapped children in the company of children who are not handicapped. Educators have coined

the term *mainstreaming* to represent the process involved in determining the least-restrictive environment. In practical terms, the primary objective is to place handicapped children in nonsegregated settings to the maximum extent possible.

Designed to guarantee certain basic rights and safeguards to all impaired children, the law provides strict guidelines for evaluating children for placement in special programs. The development and annual review of an individualized educational program (IEP) for every handicapped child is required as a cooperative endeavor by qualified school officials, the classroom teacher, and the child's parents or guardians. The IEP is a written plan that specifies the objectives which will constitute the focus of the student's instructional program. The law also requires that school personnel be trained and prepared to fully implement the mandate. The intent is for all school personnel to become more effective and skillful in meeting the educational needs of all children.

1979: Maximum Possible Participation

Let us observe a school again--only now it is 1979, and we are looking for Marc.

As we enter the school building, we hear the sound of a wheelchair coming from a nearby hall. The building principal, who notices our surprise, explains that several impaired children who are nonambulatory and in wheelchairs are in mainstreamed classes. He adds that three blind children and two deaf children are also receiving instruction in mainstreamed classes with nonimpaired peers.

The principal describes the resource program, which serves 30 children. Marc is in this program. Designed for children who are in need of special-education services for a portion of each day, the program is implemented by two resource teachers who provide direct instruction to the impaired children on a daily basis as well as support to their regular classroom teachers.

We find Marc in the third-grade classroom. We learn that he participates as a full-fledged member of this class except for one hour per day of instruction from the resource teacher and three 30-minute sessions of speech therapy per week. Marc's parents, teachers, psychologist, speech therapist, and school administrators together developed this individualized educational program for Marc and recommended his mainstreamed placement.

Marc had been diagnosed as having cerebral palsy prior to entering school. His parents had shared this information with the school personnel, who then recommended extensive educational assessment to determine whether he had any learning problems. The parents agreed; Marc was assessed; and the assessment information constituted a significant portion of the discussion at the case review. Part of the placement decision addressed the need for a resource program to review and monitor Marc's comprehension and to specify the need for and the nature of his speech therapy.

The atmosphere in the third-grade classroom is animated. The students have been divided into small groups to prepare reports about the

behavior of children in other cultures. Although Marc is not verbally participating, he is attentive and seems highly motivated. He has just offered to prepare a collage about children participating in various community activities.

We ask the classroom teacher whether she finds it difficult to provide instruction for Marc. The teacher is quite candid. She replies that there are many students, like Marc, who are relatively easy to mainstream because their intellectual ability is comparable to that of their nonimpaired peers. If they are motivated to learn, have appropriate social skills, they can be integrated into the class quite easily. "As Marc's teacher," she observes, "I can plan instruction that he can participate in along with the rest of the class. Where I need help is in determining his level of comprehension. This is frustrating for me, since I am accustomed to requiring verbal responses from children, and Marc has great difficulty in this area. That's why the resource teacher is so essential.

"But, honestly," she continues, "I have serious reservations about certain aspects of mainstreaming. I would be at a loss if I had to mainstream a child who had behavior problems. I run an 'open classroom,' which requires children to have a significant amount of personal control and a real appreciation of each other. A child with poor self-control just couldn't make it in here, and even a child with some mental retardation might find this setting very frustrating since the children are very goal oriented and self-starters.

"One other thing," she pauses. "The resource teacher in my building is superb. She is sensitive to my needs, supportive, well organized, and very dedicated. She has an unusual ability to communicate with both children and staff. I am very lucky. If the resource teacher were weak or if my building principal were anything other than enthusiastic--which mine is--the whole process would fail. A teacher cannot maintain an impaired child in the classroom without an enormous amount of support from the system. Many of my colleagues are trying unsuccessfully to mainstream without that kind of support, and they are upset because of their inability to provide quality learning experiences for all the children in their classrooms."

"Does Marc participate with his nonimpaired classmates on the playground?" we ask.

"Oh, certainly," the teacher replies. "The playground, the lunchroom, and music, art, and physical education classes are ideal settings for Marc because his impairment does not interfere with his enjoyment of the activity or of being with other children. He may sometimes need to participate in a different way, but then so do other children. Not all children can sing, paint, or throw a ball well."

"What about transportation?" we ask.

"The public school must provide Marc with a free appropriate educational program, and that includes transportation," the teacher explains. "And, if he couldn't sit by himself, the school would have to purchase a special seat for him."

"How are Marc's parents involved?" we ask.

"Marc's parents both work," we are told, "but they make every effort to participate along with the other parents of children in my class. They do attend all meetings and case reviews at which time Marc's individualized educational program is discussed, and they occasionally ask to see Marc's records. Their ideas are always helpful to me. However, at times I'm glad that I can refer them to the resource teacher. They often ask questions about cerebral palsy or the speech therapy program, and lately they have asked a lot of questions about Marc's future. I don't know what I would do if I didn't have access to a knowledgeable person who can provide some answers. I cannot be expected to know all about cerebral palsy on top of all my teaching responsibilities."

"What about Marc's speech therapy?" we ask.

"That part of Marc's program is clearly specified in the IEP, and he does get the services that were listed on that document. As I understand it, once those services are included in the IEP, they are required to be a part of the child's program."

We thank Marc's teacher and leave the school building. Clearly, Marc is being mainstreamed successfully. But will that be true of all impaired children, or even of all children like him?

Practical and Ethical Considerations

The comments of Marc's teacher remind us of some of the barriers that are likely to interfere with the successful and full implementation of PL 94-142. Clearly, it is not easy to develop the sensitivity and skill required to teach impaired children. Few classroom teachers have been adequately prepared to meet the educational and social needs of children with learning or behavior problems. Without preparatory time, and given increasing constraints on resources, difficulties are sure to abound. The significance of the support system, and of the teaching environment for the staff, is dramatic. A whole school system must make a commitment to mainstreaming; the beliefs and ideals of an individual person are insufficient.

Still other considerations emanate from the rush to integrate impaired children. Some of these questions have significant ethical underpinnings. To support a mainstreaming movement without a continuous and serious dialogue about these issues would be inappropriate, superficial, and irresponsible. Some of these issues are listed below. Although their resolution will not be simple or easy, professional commitment to quality education for all children requires that they be faced directly and honestly.

--Identification of the handicapped. Should such factors as funding, cultural differences, and poverty influence the labeling of students?

--Medication. Should teachers encourage the use of medication by certain kinds of handicapped learners?

--Class size. What limits does mainstreaming impose on the size of mainstreamed classes?

--Support personnel. What kinds of special personnel should be available to provide support to teachers in mainstreamed classrooms?

--Inservice training. What demands for inservice training does mainstreaming create?

--Discipline. Should different standards of discipline be applied to handicapped children?

--Grading. Should grades be assigned on a different basis to handicapped students?

--Expectations. Should the teacher hold different expectations for handicapped children than for nonhandicapped learners?

--Grouping. To what extent should teachers maintain mainstreamed children in separate groups?

Each of these issues will be discussed in detail in this section.

Identification of the handicapped. Labeling children as handicapped is an awesome responsibility. Such a label not only carries a stigma in and of itself, it can also result in a lowered sense of self-esteem. A segregated educational setting can further exaggerate the individual's "special" condition.

Many handicapped children--the visually impaired, the hearing-impaired, and the physically impaired--can be easily identified; there is little room for error. Other problems--for example, emotional disturbances and learning disabilities--are not so readily diagnosed. Identification of children with such handicaps depends on making inferences from test results, on medical judgments, and on teachers' recommendations. In such cases there is plenty of room for human error.

Several factors deserve special consideration. One is funding. Funds for special or additional services for children are provided on a per-handicapped-pupil basis--a policy that subtly encourages the identification of the greatest possible number of students as handicapped so that a school district receives the maximum possible amount of money. Obviously, every precaution must be taken to avoid overzealousness in seeking out and identifying children with impairments.

Another factor is cultural difference. Children from some kinds of cultural backgrounds may not possess certain prerequisite skills that educators, unconsciously or not, expect them to bring to school. Educators expect that parents will have encouraged the mastery of abstract symbols as well as serial learning ability. Educators also expect children to be motivated to learn, to attend regularly, and to perform well in school. Further, some proficiency in standard English is expected. Finally, there is an expectation that children will know how to behave in school. If children do not demonstrate such skills and behavior, they are often viewed as deficient (Kenyon and Rueda 1979).

However, the lack of all or some of these skills can be the result of a culturally different environment, not of deficiency. The tasks given to children in school and teachers' behavioral expectations may simply be different from those in the child's home environment. Of special concern are children who speak nonstandard English. The ability to think and produce language is not confined to standard English. Studies by Labov and his associates showed that the language production of some children was restricted when measured on a standard language test; however, when measured in nonstandard English, the children produced

language as complex and abstract as that produced by a comparable group of standard-English speakers (Kenyon and Rueda 1979).

In spite of widespread awareness of the potential for mislabeling culturally different children, the practice continues. The disproportionately large number of students from minority groups who are currently identified as "handicapped" serves as bitter testimony to the tenacity of cultural bias (Mercer 1975).

A third factor to be considered is poverty. While the cultural-difference factor overlaps to some degree with poverty, the two are not identical, even though a substantial proportion of culturally different children are poor. Children who come from backgrounds characterized by poverty are more likely to have health and medical problems. Further, their social environment--heavily influenced by the electronic media--is unlikely to have prepared them for success in school. Such children may be inattentive, restless, and easily bored. As their behavior becomes increasingly disruptive and if their ability to achieve is not demonstrated, teachers may perceive them as retarded, learning-disabled, or emotionally disturbed. However, children should be labeled as "handicapped" only on the basis of careful, unbiased testing combined with expert medical advice. A child's cultural background or socioeconomic status does not constitute a sufficient reason.

Each of these factors--funding, cultural difference, and poverty--makes it possible to label children erroneously. Given the significance of such labeling to a child's life, every effort must be made to guard against the undue influence of these factors in determining which children receive special educational intervention.

Medication. With children, as with adults, the use of drugs to control emotions, moods, and behavior has increased dramatically in recent years. It is estimated that 2 percent of U.S. elementary-level pupils, or as many as 400,000 children, are taking such drugs on a regular basis (Safer and Allen 1976). Yet it is estimated that 15-20 percent of children who are truly hyperactive do not benefit from drug use. Consequently, it seems fair to conclude that many children are taking medication unnecessarily. For teachers, the use of such drugs raises the following questions:

--Is the drug being used to help the child or to control the child?
--Will continued use result in drug dependency?
--Does the use of the drug interfere with the child's ability to confront his or her problems?

The use of drugs, it has been demonstrated, does not produce long-term academic gains; while they may improve attention span, they do not improve retention. Often, drug programs are started on a trial basis, and teachers are consulted about their assessment of behavior change. If the teacher's report is favorable (that the drug has had a positive effect), the drug program is usually maintained. It is at this point that the teacher plays an influential role. If the drug program is continued, it is important to know that the dosage usually is increased over time. Teachers need to thoroughly examine the situation before supporting the continuation of drug use. Further, if a drug program is implemented, a period of no medication should occur to establish the

desirability of the program's continuation. The use of behavior-altering drugs is a serious matter, and the effects of drug use over time are largely unknown. Such drugs should only be recommended in extreme cases.

Class size. Mainstreaming clearly imposes some additional responsibilities on the classroom teacher. First of all, an individualized educational program must be developed for each mainstreamed child. Such a plan required the combined efforts of parents, administrators, teachers, and support staff. Second, teachers of mainstreamed classes need to prepare nonhandicapped learners for interaction with their handicapped classmates if the goals of mainstreaming are to be met. Third, mainstreamed children have to be socially integrated with nonhandicapped youngsters. Fourth, the teacher must do everything possible to ensure that the quality of instruction received by nonhandicapped learners is not diminished.

Given these additional responsibilities, what is the maximum number of children that one teacher can handle effectively in a mainstreamed classroom? In specific terms, research has not answered this question. While we do know that class size has little effect within a range of 20-40 students, this conclusion is based on classrooms of nonhandicapped children.

Common sense tells us that the size of the mainstreamed class should be limited. It seems logical to suggest that each handicapped child should have the weight of more than one in computing desirable class size. Until more-definitive research is done, this reasonable guideline should be followed. To overload the regular classroom teacher, especially during the early period of implementation, could result in poor morale and inadequate instruction for all children.

Support personnel. There are several ways in which teachers of mainstreamed classes can benefit from specialists at the school or district level. Building principals play major roles in terms of the extent to which they are supportive of the special needs of classroom teachers; their attention to the issue of class size is one example. Access to the services of such specialists as speech therapists, special-education teachers, social workers, and psychologists is an important need. Not only do these specialists help in the identification and diagnosis of children, they can also support teachers in planning suitable instruction for mainstreamed youngsters. Until teachers feel comfortable with the wide range of differences they may encounter, the use of such experts is invaluable. Sound mainstreaming programs cannot and should not be implemented without them.

Inservice training. Implementing mainstreaming without prior attention to inservice training is irresponsible. Teachers need insight into the many kinds of handicapped learners they are likely to encounter. They need to know how various handicaps influence the ability of students to learn. They also need to know how to deliver appropriate instruction to learners with different abilities and needs. If adequate inservice training is provided, teachers can face mainstreamed classes with some confidence. Without it, teachers will experience frustration and

anxiety, and the achievement potential of all students will not be realized.

Discipline. Children with some types of impairment are likely to be less motivated and more active and to have shorter attention spans than other children. Such characteristics often lead to classroom behavior that is disruptive and annoying to the teacher. Misbehavior in a small special-education classroom is troublesome enough; the problem is compounded when it occurs in a mainstreamed classroom.

Classroom punishment might range from receiving a soft-spoken reprimand to being paddled or sent to the principal's office; in any case, the principle of equity, rather than equality, should prevail. The fact that a handicapped child's behavior may be beyond his or her control is an important consideration. The punishment that such a child receives should be mediated by this consideration and tailored to suit the child rather than to conform to a uniform standard that is applied to nonhandicapped children.

For example, eight-year-old Philip is emotionally disturbed and in a second-grade class. He is often restless and irritated. His class is making a mural of their community. Each child is drawing or making a building or landmark. Philip is drawing a bridge. When he reaches for his crayons, he finds them missing. At this point he shouts, "Someone stole my crayons!" and crumples his paper. He then grabs some crayons from the girl next to him and scribbles all over her drawing. What should the teacher do?

As any experienced teacher knows, no blanket solution can be prescribed. The response of the teacher will depend heavily on Philip's personality, past behavior, and special problems. If the teacher knows a great deal about Philip, he or she might be able to anticipate Philip's misbehavior. Modification of the room arrangements so that Philip has more space might allow Philip to express his frustration without bothering his classmates.

If a teacher is going to apply more-flexible standards to mainstreamed students, the nonhandicapped students will need to understand the reasons for these different standards. The idea that different people may require different treatment is an important understanding that can be developed in the mainstreamed classroom.

Grading. Assigning grades is one of the most uncomfortable tasks any teacher faces. Deciding what grade to give Rita, who has tried hard but accomplished little, as compared to Toni, who scored well on tests but did little or nothing otherwise, represents a constant dilemma. The question of how much weight to give to the effort put forth is an especially common concern of teachers in mainstreamed classrooms.

Teachers in regular classrooms can assign grades on either a criterion-referenced basis or a norm-referenced basis. If grading is criterion based, satisfactory grades will depend on students' demonstrating that they have met certain standards. If grading is norm referenced, acquiring a satisfactory grade (B or better) depends on doing better than 75 percent of the class.

The individualized education program (IEP) developed for each handicapped child lends itself to the establishment of criterion-referenced objectives. If the child has been diagnosed accurately, the learning objectives defined reasonably, and the instruction delivered effectively, the student should be able to meet the criteria to some degree. On this basis, a letter grade of either S/U or A-F can be assigned, with the latter system calling for some subjective interpretation regarding what constitutes an A or a B.

Expectations. Studies have shown that there is a positive correlation between teachers' expectations of students and the grades these students receive. Teachers might easily assume that they cannot expect much from handicapped children. Very quickly these low expectations are sensed by youngsters, and the result is poor performance.

Handicapped children are not necessarily slow learners; the physically handicapped and the visually or hearing-impaired may function well intellectually, and this may also be true of children who are emotionally disturbed. Those children who are mentally retarded or who have specific learning disabilities are the ones who may perform below the level of other children. For these children, it is especially important that the teacher encourage the highest possible level of achievement. They must not be written off as children who will never get anywhere. Teachers of mainstreamed classes must be committed to the highest possible achievement for each child.

Grouping. It is easy for teachers in mainstreamed classrooms to think of their students as being divided into two groups: mainstreamed students and nonhandicapped children. In the interests of efficiency, the teacher may prepare one set of lessons for the nonhandicapped children and another set for the handicapped. However, if all the handicapped children are seated together, the rest of the class will view them as a separate group, and little will have been gained over their former assignment to a special-education classroom. They have been desegregated but not integrated. Such conditions violate the spirit, if not the letter, of Public Law 94-142, whose purpose is to maximize both academic and social growth for handicapped children. Even if there were no such law, such practices would violate the commitment of the teaching profession to fulfilling the educational potential of all children.

* * *

In summary, a quality education for all students will require a continuous dialogue about the issues and related questions described above. For the social studies, in particular, such discussions and subsequent decision-making processes will determine the very core of the curriculum; they are acutely relevant to the attainment of the overarching goal of the social studies: the preparation of persons who are responsible for the welfare of others.

2. SOCIAL STUDIES GOALS FOR THE HANDICAPPED LEARNER

Goals are the ideal outcomes toward which the curriculum is directed. In order to determine what social studies goals we should seek to attain with handicapped learners, we need to begin by examining the goals identified for nonhandicapped learners and ask whether they should be modified for children with various kinds of disabilities.

Social studies goals are primarily concerned with the preparation of citizens who are willing and able to assume responsibility for the welfare of others and of their community, nation, and world. Responsible citizens write letters to newspapers and elected officials, circulate and sign petitions, join and form civic groups and organizations, work on political campaigns, and vote. To participate in these efforts effectively, citizens need to be informed, skillful, committed, and active. By providing appropriate learning experiences, schools can, through their social studies programs, contribute substantially to every individual's development as a citizen.

The four categories of social studies goals identified by the National Council for the Social Studies are knowledge, skills, values, and social participation (Osborn et al. 1979). These goals permeate the social studies curriculum irrespective of the age, grade level, socioeconomic status, racial/ethnic background, or handicapping condition of a student. The four categories are elaborated below.

Knowledge. One major purpose of the knowledge transmitted in social studies classes is to help students describe and explain the social world and its many peoples, places, practices, and problems. The social sciences (history, geography, economics, political science, sociology, anthropology, and sometimes psychology) constitute one dimension of social studies knowledge; concepts and generalizations drawn from these disciplines are consistently found in elementary social studies programs. Such concepts as social group, family, role, cooperation, interdependence, urban area, change, and conflict are commonly taught. Each of these concepts describes an important aspect of the social world, and each is transferable--it can be applied to many situations. Once learned, each concept provides a way of organizing social reality. Such generalizations as the following also receive attention:

--People everywhere have the same basic needs.

--In different cultures, people adapt to the physical environment in different ways.

These statements are conclusions that have been made on the basis of scientific investigation. Each describes or explains an aspect of social reality. Generally, they are transferable across places and across time. Knowledge of these generalizations furthers understanding of the social world.

Social issues constitute another important aspect of the knowledge base of social studies. Understanding social issues that are likely to persist over time is essential for responsible citizenship. Among these issues are pollution, racism/prejudice, sexism, civil rights, and crime. The foundation for understanding these issues can be laid in the elementary grades.

These knowledge goals--the understanding of concepts, generalizations, and social issues--are an essential part of the preparation of all young people for participation in a democratic society.

Skills. Among the abilities that students are expected to acquire within the context of social studies are thinking skills, data-processing skills, and human-relations skills.

The term *thinking skills* refers to more than the ability to merely remember or memorize. These skills include the ability to analyze, evaluate, interpret, relate ideas, identify evidence, and separate fact from opinion. Data-processing skills include interpreting maps, globes, charts, graphs, cartoons, reading materials, and audiovisual presentations. Human-relations skills involve the ability to listen, to trust and be trusted, to communicate effectively (both orally and in writing), and to empathize with others. Because all these skills play important roles in the preparation of citizens, all children must be afforded the opportunity to acquire them.

Values. Valuing and decision making go hand in hand. In order to be complete individuals and to possess integrity as social beings, we need to know what our values are and be able to make decisions that are consistent with them. Guided by the importance of human dignity (the idea that each individual and all peoples have worth) as an overarching value, social studies provides the context for the examination of one's own values and decision-making processes.

Social participation. Social participation involves direct experiences in acting on a set of values. The emphasis here is on direct rather than vicarious experiences. Reading, observing, and role playing alone are not sufficient to provide the necessary experience needed to participate effectively; students must also have opportunities to examine actual problems and decide what to do about them. Subsequent actions might take the form of seeing to it that an unsightly corner lot is cleaned up or planning an assembly that dramatizes the contributions of various ethnic groups. Social-participation experiences provide opportunities to develop leadership skills, group membership responsibilities, and confidence in being able to influence the social environment. At all grade levels, students can benefit greatly from participation experiences that are appropriate to their ages and abilities.

Obviously, learners will vary in the extent to which these goals are achieved. Some will not meet the intellectual challenges involved, some won't develop the necessary reasoning skills, and others won't display a commitment to actively participate in civic affairs.

The reasons for lack of achievement will also vary. Some children from low socioeconomic backgrounds will not see the value of social and political participation; students with below-average intellectual ability may not be able to grasp complex ideas and master social and political skills; because of their handicapping conditions, some students may not be able to develop adequate communication skills or understand abstract ideas. The fact that some learners will not attain these goals fully is not a reason to alter the goals; rather, the challenge to teachers is one of finding ways to increase the likelihood that learners will achieve these goals. In this sense, the situation in social studies is no different from that in math, where it is hoped that by the end of the fourth grade all youngsters will know their multiplication tables: teachers know at the outset that not all children will be successful, but they are not deterred from making as much progress as they can toward this goal.

There is reason to give special emphasis to these goals with handicapped learners. Because of their handicaps, these youngsters have been set apart and even segregated. In the eyes of many, they deserve pity but not first-class citizenship. As a result, they may experience alienation and a weak sense of connection to others and to society. The compelling reason behind mainstreaming is to end this isolation and to place youngsters in the least-restrictive environment in which they can maximize their academic and social potential.

Handicapped persons constitute 11 percent of the population. Our society cannot afford to risk their alienation and withdrawal. Every bit as much as a nonhandicapped child, a handicapped youngster needs to gain the knowledge, skills, and values that will enhance the quality of life and citizenship.

Obviously, with certain kinds of handicapped learners, instructional goals for social studies must be tempered by reality. For example, a mentally handicapped child who cannot easily transfer what is learned in one setting to another and who does not comprehend the meaning of social situations will probably not realize these goals fully. Learning human-relations skills may, for such youngsters, be difficult. Some abstract ideas--for example, social justice, democracy, freedom--may be beyond their comprehension. For some of the more severely retarded, the social studies program may be limited to teaching very concrete concepts and skills (handling money, riding a bus, preparing simple meals, telling time). For others with less severe mental handicaps, every opportunity should be provided to move as far as they can toward achieving the instructional goals identified for all learners.

Children with learning disabilities generally have few social problems, and their verbal skills are usually intact. Their problems are largely academic--often in the areas of reading, writing, and math. Obviously, such children are likely to have difficulty with lessons and activities that require reading or writing skills. Understanding

concepts, generalizations, and social issues is likely to be a problem; much will depend on how they are expected to learn and express themselves. Providing examples of those abstract ideas that are immediate to their lives will facilitate their comprehension of such ideas. The extra effort required to do this on the part of the teacher will be well spent if these children are able to make progress.

Although the academic abilities of emotionally handicapped children may not be impaired, their emotional problems are likely to interfere with learning. Special consideration must be given to the design of the physical environment, the organization of the lessons, and strategies for managing disruptive behavior.

Children with hearing disorders, visual impairments, or speech defects present certain constraints, but their cognitive abilities are not necessarily affected by their handicaps. The hard-of-hearing may have some difficulty relating to others socially, and children with speech defects obviously will have some trouble communicating; however, these limitations are not sufficient to impede goal attainment in the social studies area.

Theoretically, the goals of social studies should remain intact for all learners. Realistically, the more severe the handicapping condition, the more these goals must be modified or prioritized. However, it is of paramount importance that teachers not set their expectations too low. Expectations have a way of becoming ceilings, and we seldom get more than we expect in the area of learning and school achievement.

3. SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTION FOR STUDENTS WITH HANDICAPS

An understanding of handicapping conditions and associated learning problems is essential for teachers in mainstreamed classrooms. The strategies used in achieving instructional goals may need modification to allow for the specific learning problems of each handicapped student.

No teacher is expected to be an expert on all handicaps or to instinctively know how to make such adjustments. Rather, the teacher's role is to be flexible in considering alternative paths to a goal. Resource teachers and other support personnel are valuable sources of help in diagnosing a student's learning problem and planning instruction.

The ideal way of designing an instructional program for each handicapped student is to assemble a team consisting of various school personnel and the child's parents. Working together, these persons can diagnose the strengths and needs of each child. That is what mainstreaming is all about. Generalizations for teaching any given category of handicapped children may not be applicable to a particular child in that category. However, it is possible to identify certain general statements that can serve as basic hypotheses for planning alternative approaches to instruction.

This chapter contains basic information and practical guidelines designed to help classroom teachers plan appropriate lessons and modify the strategies suggested in basic social studies texts and other classroom materials. Seven types of handicapping conditions are addressed: mental retardation, learning disabilities, hearing impairments, emotional handicaps, visual impairments, speech and language disorders, and physical disabilities. For each handicapping condition, we have provided descriptions of (1) the nature of the condition, (2) learning problems typically associated with the handicapping condition and their implications for social studies instruction, (3) strategies for modifying instruction in order to achieve social studies goals, (4) a sample adapted lesson focused on one of the four social studies goals (knowledge, skills, valuing, social participation), and (5) sources of free or inexpensive information about the handicapping condition. The sample lessons are modifications of lessons taken from the McGraw-Hill Social Studies Program for grades K-6.

Mental Retardation

Nature of the Condition

The child who is labeled *mentally retarded* functions at a below-average intellectual level and displays deficiencies in adaptive behavior.

The term *subaverage general intellectual functioning* is used to describe performance on a standardized test of intelligence that is more than two standard deviations below the mean. On such tests as the Stanford-Binet or the Revised Wechsler Intelligence Scale, in which the mean is 100, a score of 68 or below classifies a child as retarded.

Adaptive behavior is another term for social competence. Appropriate adaptive behavior skills vary according to age level; for a preschooler, such skills might include the ability to feed oneself, while appropriate adaptive behavior for a teenager might be to reach a given destination alone and on time. Appropriate adaptive behavior also varies with context. A teenager who lives in the city and is able to cope with the subway system has adequate adaptive skills in terms of self-mobility. A teenager who lives in a rural community and knows how to operate a certain piece of farming equipment has adequate adaptive skills in terms of vocational competence.

Some people argue that the social system determines whether a child is retarded. They see the school as a social system with expectations that certain children do not meet; those children are then labeled as retarded.

The most useful classification system for retarded persons is based on the severity of the condition. The terms used are *mild*, *moderate*, *severe*, and *profound*. The mildly retarded--more-commonly called the *educable mentally retarded* (EMR)--are most likely to be considered for mainstreaming placements.

The cause of mental retardation can be organic (the result of accident or injury before, during, or after birth) or cultural/familial (the result of a deprived environment or genetic factors). However, the distinction between the two categories is of limited importance for educational planning because the behavioral characteristics associated with each are not necessarily different. For example, a child with brain damage may be highly distractible, but this same behavior may be present in a child with no organic impairment who comes from a deprived home. The following generalizations about mental retardation are important to remember:

--Most mildly mentally handicapped children are not diagnosed until they enter school (when intellectual demands greatly increase).

--Most mildly mentally handicapped children "look like" children of normal intelligence.

--The extact cause(s) of mental retardation may be difficult to identify; a "poor" or psychosocially deprived environment may contribute to this condition, but this is difficult to document.

Associated Learning Problems

The mildly mentally retarded child has one or more of the following learning-related problems:

--Difficulty in dealing simultaneously with a variety of stimuli (thus easily distracted and possessing a short attention span).

--Lack of ability to "catch on" as quickly as children who are not mentally handicapped (however, once a task is learned, such children often can perform as well as nonhandicapped children).

--Deficiency in short-term memory, attributable to inability to organize or rehearse (long-term memory may not be deficient; the severity of memory deficit is usually related to the level of retardation).

--Language difficulties (with the severity of these generally related to the severity of the mental retardation).

--Difficulty in reading.

--Deficiency in arithmetic reasoning (although arithmetic computation may be satisfactory once skills have been learned thoroughly).

--Poor abstract reasoning ability; concepts that are difficult to portray in concrete or pictorial fashion may not be understood (for example, *democracy, loyalty*).

--Limited ability to plan ahead and foresee outcomes or learn from past experiences.

--Difficulty in applying learning from one situation to another.

All in all, it is important to keep in mind that the learning characteristics of the mildly mentally handicapped do not differ from those of other children--mentally handicapped children go through the same stages, but at a slower rate. Mentally retarded children lag behind their chronological age peers in all areas of achievement, especially in reading comprehension. Obviously, this difficulty affects such a child's comprehension of the reading materials used in social studies lessons.

Knowledge and skill acquisition happens more slowly for mentally retarded youngsters. Extensive effort will be needed to ensure that they are attending to learning tasks. The use of concrete and pictorial representations will greatly facilitate learning. Knowledge and skills acquired in one situation will need to be taught again in other situations.

Learning of values and skills in social participation also occurs at a slower rate in the mentally handicapped. Realistic, immediate experiences must be provided if such children are to comprehend the meaning of lessons focusing on this area.

Social studies for the mentally retarded offers essential opportunities for the enhancement of socially adaptive behavior. However, the learning objectives identified for each child must reflect concern for the child's eventual place in the community. For example, map-reading skills may be very important in terms of the child's local environment. Concrete "props" may need to be incorporated into lessons dealing with this area of skill development--in the form, say, of three-dimensional buildings similar to buildings in child's repertoire of experiences. The broad goals of social studies need not be altered for the mentally

Table 3

MODIFICATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR A MENTALLY RETARDED STUDENT

	Goal Category			
	Knowledge	Skills	Values	Social Participation
Description of Learning Goal(s)	Concepts and generalizations from the social sciences; patterns and systems in the environment; social issues	Analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating; data processing; human relations	Awareness of and appreciation for differences in people	Active involvement in the solution of social problems
Suggested Instructional Strategies	Use concrete, three-dimensional materials, visuals, recordings Minimize reading mode for enhancing knowledge Present ideas one at a time, carefully sequenced	Keep tasks simple with clear instructions Consider the child's comprehension level, not chronological age, in determining skills to be learned Provide data that are meaningful to the child Provide positive recognition for each task completed Provide individualized instruction (using peers, perhaps) Use a variety of modes for determination of skill acquisition Use modeling and role play for teaching social relations Provide opportunities to practice social relations skills	Use immediate environment Make examples meaningful Make applications very specific	Use real-life experiences Use immediate environment; gradually expand into the larger environment of the child

handicapped, but specific objectives must be realistic in terms of each child's potential.

Strategies for Modifying Instruction

Given the learning characteristics of the mildly mentally retarded, in particular their slower rate of learning, it is important to provide extended readiness experiences and opportunities to manipulate three-dimensional objects.

In order to enhance the child's abilities to attend to a task and to transfer learning from one situation to another, the teacher will need to design very carefully sequenced lessons. The use of experiences within the child's immediate environment is essential. A child who is provided with meaningful, understandable examples will more easily acquire the knowledge, skills, or values being presented.

Repeated exposure to the same material will be necessary; repetition is important because it enables the child to rehearse what is to be learned. However, if not carefully designed and presented, repetition of content may become boring or tedious for the child.

The need for continuous and immediate feedback cannot be overemphasized. Reinforcement for task completion, independent work, and appropriate social behavior is especially needed. The teacher will need to continually assess and report progress, because the child's performance is likely to be erratic rather than consistent.

In addition to suggestions that cut across all areas, several modifications have particular utility for one or more of the four categories of social studies goals. These are listed in Table 3.

Sample Adapted Lesson

An adapted lesson designed to meet a social studies *knowledge* goal (from Level 1 of the McGraw-Hill Social Studies Program, *Discovering Others*) has been reproduced on the following pages. Superimposed on the reproductions are code numbers which correspond to modifications suggested for a mentally retarded child.

Goal(s): To demonstrate to the pupils the physical similarities and differences among people.

Code	Suggested Modification(s)
1	--When making the descriptive statement about the retarded child, select a characteristic that can be easily seen by the child (article of clothing, personal possession). --Refer to the same kind of characteristic when you make statements about other children in the class; for example: "Martin, you are wearing a blue shirt. Lee, you are wearing a red shirt. Paula, your shirt is pink." --The attention of the retarded child will be more easily retained if you point out his or her similarities to other children; for example: "Joey, look at Jane. She has a blue bookbag like yours."

Lesson 1
Looking at Me and You

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PURPOSE OF THE LESSON

To demonstrate to the pupils the physical similarities and differences among people.

EXPECTATIONS

Upon completion of this lesson, students will have:

Identified and named at least two physical similarities and differences that exist among people.

Identified some of their own physical similarities and differences by participating in a game.

RESOURCES

Discovering Others, pp. 10–13
ruler, crayon, paper
sheet (optional)
"Hokey Pokey" record (optional)

READING HINTS (Pp. 10–13)

Word Meaning: Teach the meaning of the words *me* and *you* before proceeding with this lesson. In teaching the concept of *me*, have each child stand before a mirror. Have the children look at themselves and say "This is me." Then have them move their arms and hands upward to touch the top of their heads and trace the contours of their faces and bodies while saying "This is me." Have students look at themselves from the front, side, and back in front of the mirror. Let them stand in front of a projector in order to see their silhouettes on a chalkboard.

Concept Development: Be sure that the students know the meanings of *alike* and *different*. Question students about the similarity between the following two or three items and the differences between these items:

a. your desk and the student's desk
b. your chair and the student's chair
c. pencil, pen and chalk
d. baseball, basketball, and a football

After checking the students' knowledge of *alike* and *different*, proceed to this lesson.

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Look at these children.
How are these children alike?

How are these children different?

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STRATEGIES

Arousing Interest

1 Take a ruler, crayon, and paper with you as you walk over to each child, and make one positive descriptive statement about each child: "_____, you're smiling; _____, you're 91 centimeters (40 inches) tall; _____, you have brown hair (eyes); _____, you have long (curly) hair; _____, you wear glasses:" Use a crayon and paper to trace some of the pupils' fingers, hands, and shoes. Think of the different physical characteristics before beginning, so that you can readily offer a comment for each child. Don't emphasize gender or racial difference, and be careful not to single out anything that might embarrass a child. Repeat several of the same characteristics to demonstrate likenesses among people. Children may not understand the purpose at this point, but their curiosity and delight at your attention will lead them into the lesson. Before you continue, ask the pupils if they would like to say something nice about you.

The Lesson

2 Ask pupils: "In what ways are we different?" After several children have responded, have two
3 pupils stand up. Ask the class how these two people are different from each other. Make sure pupils' comments are not negative or based on value
4 judgments. Ask: "How are we alike?" If pupils have difficulty responding, then ask: "Do both children have bodies? Legs? Hands? Nose?" Continue until you have an extensive list.

5 Have pupils open their texts to pages 10 and 11. Read the words on the pages. Direct the children's attention to the pictures on the pages. Encourage the pupils to describe the people and how they are
6 different. Continue with pages 12 and 13. Ask student volunteers how they are alike and different
7 from the people on these pages.

CAREER AWARENESS

Some jobs require involvement with physical characteristics. Talk to the children about barbers, hairdressers, people who apply make-up, and artists. Ask the children about how getting a haircut might change the way someone looks.

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Ending the Lesson

Have the children form a circle or stand by their desks. Say: "We're going to play the 'Hokey Pokey.' " Ask if anyone knows how to play. Explain that we're going to do it a little differently. Have them listen first while you demonstrate. Start with characteristics that are generally alike (body, head, hips, and so forth) so all children can participate. Intermittently, use a specific hair color, eye color, and so forth. Explain to the pupils that they will have to listen carefully to see if they are alike or different. If they do not have the physical characteristic called out, they are to stand still. If you have a recording of "Hokey Pokey," you can play it softly in the background. ("Put your head in, put your head out, put your head in and shake it all about. Do the Hokey Pokey and turn yourself around—that's what it's all about.")

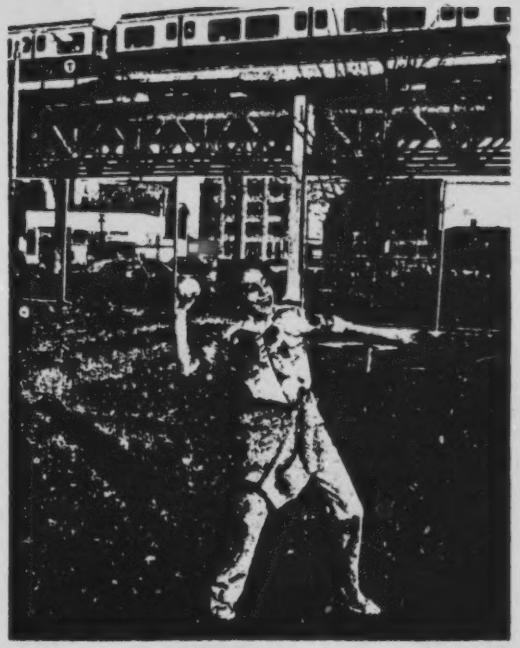
Review with pupils the ways in which they are alike and different.

EVALUATION

Pick a partner for each child. Have the two partners tell how they are alike and different. The pupils' participation in the "Hokey Pokey" satisfies the other expectation of this lesson.

OPTIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. The purpose of the Sheet Game is to visually focus on physical characteristics, to determine how we are alike and different. To play the game, two students hold up a sheet (cloth, towel, coat): Three or four student volunteers stand behind the sheet, and the rest of the class is the participating audience. The volunteers, at the direction of the teacher, will show parts of their bodies to the rest of the class. The similarities will be emphasized first. Start with having heads appear above the sheet, then fingers, hands, arms, upper torso, feet, and so forth. Ask the students what they see and how these body parts are alike. Now emphasize the differences when the students show parts of their bodies again. The order is not important. Point out hair color, eyes, height, and so forth. To examine differences more closely, for example, ask volunteers or the whole class to trace each other's hands. While the volunteers are positioning themselves behind the sheet, you may want to ask the rest of the students to close their eyes. If any negative comments are made, rephrase the statement so it is not a value judgment. Your statements throughout the lesson will serve as models for children to copy.



Look at these people, too.
How are these people alike?

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How are these people different?

2. Have each student cut out magazine pictures of two or more children. The pupils should paste their pictures on paper and then write or draw arrows pointing to the differences among the children pictured. Help them spell the words they need. Arrange the pupils' papers on a bulletin board labeled "How Are We Different?"

3. Adapt the preceding experience. Have pupils cut out pictures of children and write about their similarities. Label the display of these papers "How Are We Alike?"

CAREER AWARENESS

Distribute a picture of a person from a newspaper or a magazine ad to the class and have the children draw a mustache on it, or a curly head of hair. Ask them to draw things on the picture that would change the appearance of the person in the photograph.

2 --Be specific. Point out that Jane has brown hair. Then ask: "Whose hair is a different color?" Repeat this process with several characteristics, eliciting responses from the retarded child as often as possible.

3 --Again, be specific. Point out that Mark is wearing blue running shoes and Diane is wearing red shoes. Then single out another characteristic of the first child ("Mark has a bandage on his right hand") and ask whether the second child is the same in that respect. Encourage the retarded child to identify differences.

4 --As class members respond, make a list on the blackboard.
--Have available pictures of parts of the body, etc., which can be selected as examples of similarities. Also have ready pictures of items that not all people have in common, and ask children to suggest reasons for differences.

5 --Focus the retarded child's attention on specific pictures and read the statements aloud.
--Ask the child to respond by pointing.
--Ask the child to explain his or her choices.

6 --Direct the child's attention to specific items in specific pictures. ("This is a boy, and this is a boy. How are these boys different from each other?")
--Repeat the process with additional pictures. ("This girl is playing and this girl is playing, but they are playing with different things. Show me what is different.")

7 --Be specific. Ask the retarded child to find a boy in the picture who has different-color hair from his or a girl who is wearing the same-color pants.

8 --Point to pictures of the various body parts as the singing game progresses. Then repeat the game without the pictures.
--Stand next to the retarded child so that you can provide assistance.

Sources of Information About Mental Retardation

Facts on Mental Retardation (#10-4), *Towards an Interdependent Life* (#10-26, $0.25), *Monitoring the Right to Education* (#30-18, $0.25); available from the National Association for Retarded Citizens, P.O. Box 6109, Arlington, Texas 76011.

A Brief Guide to the Special Olympics (free), *A New Kind of Joy* (free); available from the Joseph P. Kennedy Foundation, 1701 K St., N.W., Suite 203, Washington, D.C. 20006.

The Retarded Child Gets Ready for School (#349, $0.50), *Helping the Slow Learner* (#405, $0.50), *New Hope for the Retarded Child* (#210-A, $0.50), *How Retarded Children Can Be Helped* (#288, $0.50), available from the Public Affairs Committee, 381 Park Ave. So., New York, New York 10016.

Questions and Answers About Down's Syndrome (free); available from the National Foundation/March of Dimes, 1275 Mamaroneck Ave., White Plains, New York 10605.

A Place of Our Own (free), *Look Who's Minding the Store* (free), *Hello World* (free); available from the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, Washington, D.C. 20210.

Learning Disabilities

Nature of the Condition

The field of learning disabilities is the newest category of special education. The interest in this area evolved as a result of a growing awareness that a large number of children were not receiving appropriate educational services. These children were not achieving at their expected potential, although they were within the normal range of intelligence.

The causes of learning disabilities are difficult to identify. Some people claim that they are due to "minimal brain damage." Others blame hereditary factors, the environment, or poor teaching. Lately the interest has been shifting from causes to solutions. One area that holds great promise is the study of food additives, which have been linked to hyperactivity.

Associated Learning Problems

The learning-disabled child may have one or more of the following learning-related problems:

--Difficulty in integrating and organizing data (although the child may learn and acquire specific skills with relative ease).

--Delay in achieving fine motor coordination.

--Inability to keep attention focused on the lesson.

--Difficulty in differentiating between important relevant stimuli and unimportant or irrelevant stimuli; thus other children or strange sounds may be unusually distracting.

--Inability to coordinate hand movements with vision.

--Difficulty in performing such perceptual discrimination tasks as recognizing differences in visually presented materials, sounds, or movements.

--Deficits in one or more scholastic areas; reading problems are the most prevalent.

--Tendency to become easily frustrated when routines change or work cannot be completed; the learning-disabled child tends to be an unhappy child with low self-esteem.

--Tendency to act impulsively; this particular kind of problem corresponds with distractibility and hyperactivity.

Most learning-disabled children should be able to achieve social studies objectives as well as their nonhandicapped peers. Much will depend on their attending behavior and motivation and on the extent to which their impulsiveness or distractibility interferes with learning.

The structure of the learning task is very important for such students. If the learning objective and the student's role are clear, and if the student is assisted in staying "on task," distractions are decreased and achievement potential is increased. Accurate assessment of learner achievement will necessitate the development of techniques which minimize the child's need for well-developed fine motor skills and coordination. The use of paper-and-pencil tests will not suffice as a measurement tool for this group of students.

Strategies for Modifying Instruction

When one thinks of learning-disabled children and their particular learning problems, one can begin to identify basic instructional modifications that apply not only to social studies but to all facets of the elementary program. Some such children may profit from multisensory methods--that is, using a combination of sensory systems in the educational process. For example, when discussing the concept "old," present objects that are old and new for the child to touch. Present pictures describing the concept, and provide opportunities for children to express themselves in relation to the lesson.

Any child who is easily distracted will require a highly structured (teacher-directed) learning experience with a minimum of extraneous stimulation. This may mean the provision of a private study space; it also means that the lesson must have a clear-cut objective and that each student must understand his or her own role or assignment. A high level of distractibility also suggests the use of deductive lessons instead of inductive ones for teaching concepts and generalizations.

Behavior modification techniques have been used successfully with youngsters who are distractible and hyperactive. These techniques include reinforcers--usually tokens or checkmarks that can be turned in for prizes--which are given for attending and for "on task" behaviors. Such reinforcers should be given across several modalities. A verbal "well done" or a pat on the back may greatly enhance the check mark on a paper or chart.

Training in self-observation, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement has been successful with learning-disabled children. Another strategy is to teach children to analyze task requirements and to describe the steps of a task before performing them.

In some instances, drugs are prescribed in an effort to change behavior. Since much controversy surrounds their use, it is critical that all "educational" treatments be explored first. Medical treatment should be sought only as a last resort; and, when drugs are in use, dosage must be carefully monitored.

In addition to these basic suggestions that cut across all academic areas, several modifications that have particular utility within certain goal areas are suggested in Table 4, which is organized according to the four goals of the social studies.

Table 4

MODIFICATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR A LEARNING-DISABLED STUDENT

	Goal Category			
	Knowledge	Skills	Values	Social Participation
Description of Learning Goal(s)	Concepts and generalizations from the social sciences; patterns and systems in the environment; social issues	Analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating; data processing; human relations	Awareness of and appreciation for differences in people	Active involvement in the solution of social problems
Suggested Instructional Strategies	Use the child's strongest modality (sense) when presenting information Use several modalities in an integrated manner (child silently reads printed page while teacher reads it aloud) Use varied output modes (writing, speaking, gestures); combine writing with oral responses Assist the child in maintaining attention by cueing or tracking (following along with a pencil or finger) Minimize distractions	Provide much recognition for tasks completed Design contracts for task completion Use modeling techniques for teaching about human relations Carefully design tasks requiring perceptual skills and motor coordination Design tasks for the child at or below instructional level Provide ample opportunities for the child to experience success	Use small discussion groups for short periods of time Make application to realistic, relevant groups in the child's world Minimize the use of information-processing skills to develop objectives in this area.	

Sample Adapted Lesson

An example of an adapted lesson designed to meet a social studies *skill* goal was selected from the fourth-grade teacher's edition of the McGraw-Hill Social Studies Program, *Studying Cultures* (pp. 58-59). The lesson is reproduced on the following pages. Superimposed on the reproductions are code numbers which correspond to modifications suggested for a learning-disabled child.

Goal(s): To locate the Philippines and the island of Mindanao on a map; to use the map key to identify the capital city and other cities, geographical features portrayed, and the scale used; to read a set of directions describing various locations on a map and to use those directions to find the locations on a corresponding map.

Code	Suggested Modification(s)
1	--Give children cards with words on one side and pictures on the other (or make a Lotto game). --Let the children cut the cards apart into word parts and define each part (or make a second set). --Define the word "compound" and give other examples of compound words.
2	--Make cards for "Luzon" and "Manila" and let the learning-disabled child place the cards at the correct locations on the map and globe.
3	--Give a copy of the map in the book to each child along with colored markers. --Let the children color in forests and mountains. (You might demonstrate this, using an opaque projector.) --Let the children feel globe and discuss the concept of roundness.
4	--When comparing the map with the globe, assist children in noticing details on the textbook map and their relationship to other countries on the globe. Prompt, cue, give clues; reinforce appropriate responses.
5	--While children read, display pictures of what they are reading about.
6	--Give each child a cutout of each island so they can compare size. Provide each child with a scale rule marked off in "miles" on one side and "kilometers" on the other. --Review each word on the map key and ask the children to find appropriate places on map. (Make a key larger than the one in the textbook, and be sure that the names on the map are clearly distinguishable.)
7	--Let children work in pairs to measure distances and practice using the map.

Sources of Information About Learning Disabilities

Association for Children With Learning Disabilities, 5225 Grace St., Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15236.

Lesson 12
The Philippines

PURPOSES OF THE LESSON

To locate the Philippines on a map.

To familiarize the students with the capital, some large cities, and various geographical characteristics of the island country.

To locate the island of Mindanao as the home of the Tasaday.

To review and practice some basic map skills.

EXPECTATIONS

Upon completion of this lesson, the students should be able to:

Locate the Philippines and the island of Mindanao on a map.

Use a map key to identify the capital city and other cities, geographical features portrayed, and the scale used.

Read a set of directions describing various locations on a map and use those directions to put the locations on the corresponding map.

RESOURCES

textbooks pp. 36–37
globe
Actionbooks, pp. 10–12
rulers or other measuring devices
crayons

READING HINTS (Pages 36–37)

Compounds: Write the following words on the chalkboard: *lowland, coconut, pineapple,* and *seacoasts.* Have the students determine the words within each word and define each compound word. Ask if the compound words listed retain the original meanings of their word parts. 1

Dictionary Skills: Review *Luzon* (Lü·zon') and *Manila* (Ma·nil'e). Have the students determine the pronunciation of *Philippines* and *General Santos.* 2

STRATEGIES

Direct the attention of the class to the map on page 36 of the textbook. Then have the students read the first paragraph on page 36. Ask how the 3

More than seven thousand islands make up the Philippines. Over half the land is covered with forests. As you can see from the map, there are many mountains.

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Most of the people live in the lowlands. The largest lowland area is the central plain on the island of Luzon (Lü zon′). Most of the farms are also in the lowlands. But farmers raise crops on the sides of mountains as well. The soil in the Philippines is very rich. Rice is the main crop. Others are sugar, coconut, pineapple, corn, and sweet potatoes.

Luzon is the largest island in the Philippines. Manila (Mə nil′ə), the capital, is there. Manila is a modern port city with over a million people. There are many other large cities in the Philippines.

Mindanao, the island on which the Tasaday live, is the second largest island. Much of the land is not being used yet, but it is rich in timber and minerals.

Look at the *distance scale* on the map. You can use the distance scale to find out how far one place is from another. The scale shows what a distance on the map is equal to in real kilometers or miles. On this scale, 1 centimeter on the map equals 90 kilometers on Earth. One inch on the map equals 150 miles on Earth.

1. How many centimeters (inches) are there between Mount Tasaday and Manila on the map?
2. How many kilometers (miles) does this make?
3. How many kilometers (miles) is it from Mount Tasaday to General Santos, the nearest town?

1. In what kind of environment do the Tasaday live?
2. What is the equator? Do the Tasaday live north or south of it?
3. Describe the land in the Philippines.
4. Where are most of the cities? Where do most of the people live?

map in the book is different from the classroom globe. The answer sought is that the globe is round and looks more exactly like Earth, while the map is flat. Both maps and globes represent Earth or parts of it. Ask a student to find the Philippines on the globe. Compare it with the map of the Philippines in
4 the text. What does the globe tell the students about the country that the map does not? (its location in relation to other countries) What does the map tell that the globe does not? (more detail about geographical features and other locations) Emphasize that the Tasaday live on one of the Philippine Islands. Review the definition of an island.
5 Continue with the next paragraphs. Ask what on the map shows that the land is rough or smooth. Have the students make other guesses about the Philippines from the map.

After the students read the last paragraph on page 37, have them measure the distance between
6 the Tasaday home and Manila. Remind them to check the map scale in the key. "How many kilometers (miles) are in a centimeter (an inch)? How many centimeters (inches) are there between the Tasaday home and Manila? Who can tell how many kilome-
7 ters (miles) are between the two places?" Next, have the students measure the island of Mindanao to find out how wide it is from north to south.

EVALUATION

Have the students turn to pages 10–12 in their Actionbook. Read the directions with the class. Locate the Philippine Sea with the class on the map and show how to write the name on the map. Have someone suggest a symbol to use as water (sea and gulf) and fill it in on the line in the key opposite "Sea and gulf water." Let the students finish the exercise on their own.

If your students seem to be experiencing some difficulty with the exercise, you may allow them to work with a partner or you may choose to do the exercise with the class as a whole.

When everyone has finished the exercise, check it orally with the whole class. Answer questions and clear up misunderstandings. There should be room for a small margin of error in locating some of the places described. The students should receive credit for being in the general area described.

If you have no Actionbook, ask a few pupils to locate the Philippines and Mindanao on a map and to locate the key to the map. Students can then find the symbols on the map and describe their location to you. Continue until you feel the students have accomplished the "Expectations."

Closer Look, National Information Center for the Handicapped, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

Council for Exceptional Children, 1920 Association Drive, Reston, Virginia 22091.

Hearing Impairments

Nature of the Condition

The term *hearing impaired* refers to persons who are deaf or hard of hearing. The word *deaf* describes a person with a hearing impairment so severe that he or she cannot process linguistic information, with or without a hearing aid. A *hard-of-hearing* person, generally with the assistance of a hearing aid, has enough hearing to successfully process linguistic information through auditory stimulation. The problem for educators is one of determining the extent to which the hearing loss is likely to affect the child's ability to speak and develop language.

The causes of hearing loss are related to the location of the problem within the hearing mechanism. Infections, objects put into the ear by a child, tumors, buildup of earwax, or a perforated eardrum can cause impairments of the outer ear. Middle-ear troubles occur because of some malfunction of one of the parts as a result of an allergy or tumor. Inner-ear disorders are usually caused by hereditary factors and sometimes by viruses, infections, blows to the head, or exposure to excessive noise levels.

Associated Learning Problems

The most severely affected area of development is the ability to learn language and speech. While hearing impairment is a great barrier to normal language development, most deaf people can be taught some use of oral language. However, extensive training is needed if the child is to develop normal language, and even with training some children will never develop normal language.

It is not likely that a deaf child will be placed in a regular classroom; however, a hard-of-hearing child may very well be placed in a mainstreamed setting. The remainder of this section will address the needs of the hard of hearing.

The hard-of-hearing child is likely to have the following learning problems:

--Impaired reading ability, which relies heavily on language skills.

--Difficulty in communicating or relating with peers and others, especially if the child has grown up in relative isolation; such a child may be either shy and withdrawn or overaggressive.

--Unintelligible speech or unusual voice quality and pitch.

--Difficulty in understanding directions and questions.

It is very likely that hearing-impaired children will be deficient in academic achievement, primarily in reading but probably in other areas as well. Much will depend on the individual youngster's

Table 5

MODIFICATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR A HARD-OF-HEARING STUDENT

	Goal Category			
	Knowledge	Skills	Values	Social Participation
Description of Learning Goal(s)	Concepts and generalizations from the social sciences; patterns and systems in the environment; social issues	Analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating; data processing; human relations	Awareness of and appreciation for differences in people	Active involvement in the solution of social problems
Suggested Instructional Strategies	Increase awareness of the child's own body image Expand the child's concept of his or her environment and family relationships Emphasize visual mode for presenting information Use concrete, three-dimensional materials whenever possible	Increase the child's listening sensitivity for a variety of sounds and extend his auditory sounds Provide opportunities for development of the child's motor skills Expand the child's vocabulary Assist the child in acquiring classification skills Emphasize functional application of skills Use visual mode for presenting material whenever possible (captioned films, labeled objects)	Provide opportunities for the child to feel worthy and secure Use small-group discussions for value analysis, in which other students face impaired child when they speak	Encourage child to participate whenever possible (recognizing that the child probably feels tense) Provide tasks at which the child can succeed

intelligence and motivation. The problem that cuts across all areas is one of communication--communication between the teacher and the child and between the child and adults and other children.

Strategies for Modifying Instruction

Several recommended modifications are related to the physical characteristics of the learning environment and the behavior of the teacher. A hearing-impaired child should sit in the front of the room--preferably off to one side, so that he or she can easily see both teacher and classmates. To maximize the child's opportunities to lipread, try to remain about six feet away from the child, speak naturally, and stand still when talking. Remember not to turn your back to the class and talk while writing on the board. If you need to repeat something, try to rephrase the statement.

Irrespective of the task, it is important to get the child's attention before making an assignment or asking a question. The child may need help in attending, especially if auditory or visual distractors are present. Emphasis on visual stimuli is essential.

In addition to these suggestions, which cut across all subject and goal areas, several modifications have particular utility for achieving certain social studies goals. These are listed on Table 5.

Sample Adapted Lesson

A lesson adapted to help hearing-impaired students meet the social studies *valuing* goal was selected from *Investigating Societies*, Level 6 of the McGraw-Hill Social Studies Program (p. 199, teacher's edition). The lesson is reproduced on the following pages. Superimposed on the reproductions are code numbers which correspond to the modifications suggested for hard-of-hearing children.

Goal(s): To have the students propose a variety of alternatives for encouraging Nigerian unity and consider the consequences of each.

Code	Suggested Modification(s)
1	--When discussing the meanings of *alternative* and *outcome*, provide concrete examples and pictures.
2	--Make sure that the hard-of-hearing student can easily see each group member's face.
3	--As an alternative, present the task on an overhead projector for students to resolve individually.
4	--Record the solutions suggested by the groups on the chalkboard, along with their reasons.
5	--Provide written instructions.

Sources of Information About Hearing Impairments

Ideas for Families; available from Lexington School for the Deaf, 30th Ave. and 75th St., Jackson Heights, New York 11370.

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After the war, General Gowon did not punish soldiers who had fought for Biafra.

40

stored. He wanted to send it to Biafra as soon as it surrendered. After the war, he did so. Many foreign countries, however, criticized Gowon because he insisted that the Nigerian Red Cross do all the relief work. Foreigners were excluded. He claimed the war had been Nigeria's problem.

1. Give three reasons why General Gowon was not a typical northerner.
2. How did the Fulani-Hausa, the Ibo, and the Yoruba want to divide Nigeria? How did the smaller tribes want to divide it?
3. Why did northerners like Gowon? Why did southerners like him? Why did people with government jobs like him? Why did the army like him?
4. Why did foreign countries criticize Gowon after the civil war?

5. How did General Gowon's behavior during and after the civil war affect national unity?

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Lesson 23

Alternative Solutions

PURPOSE OF THE LESSON

To have the students propose a variety of alternatives for encouraging Nigerian unity and consider the consequences of each.

EXPECTATIONS

Upon completion of this lesson, students should be able to:

Participate in a decision-making exercise.

List proposed alternatives and rank order them from most successful to least successful according to their own opinions.

RESOURCES

none

STRATEGIES

1 Write the words *alternative* and *outcome* on the board and review them with the students.

2 Divide the class into small groups. Explain that they are advisers to General Gowon. He has asked them to consider ways in which they can bring unity to the diversity of Nigeria. Each group of advisers is to consider several different ways to do this. They should list the proposed solution and what its probable outcomes would be. Then, they should

3 decide which they think is best and why.

After the students have had an opportunity to discuss their ideas fully, bring the class together. Ask each group to report its best solution and the reason for the choice. Then, after these have been listed on

4 the board, ask if any group wishes to contribute a solution that was considered but has not yet been suggested.

EVALUATION

5 Ask the students to copy the list of proposed solutions. They should number these in order from *1* (for the best solution in their opinion) to whatever is the last number for the total suggestions (for the worst solution). Answers will vary.

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Signaling Devices for Hearing Impaired People; available from the National Technical Institute for the Deaf, 1 Lomb Memorial Drive, Rochester, New York 14623.

Helping the Child Who Cannot Hear; available from the Public Affairs Committee, 381 Park Ave. So., New York, New York 10016.

What Every Person Should Know About Heredity and Deafness, An Apple for the Teacher, Words Above a Whisper (free), *Stuck for the Right Word* (free), *A Look at Fingerspelling* (free), *A Look at American Sign Language* (free), *American Sign Language: Fact and Fancy* (all free); available from the Public Service Program, Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C. 20002.

Listen! Hear! (free); available from Alexander Graham Bell Association, 3417 Volta Place, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20007.

Catalogue of Captioned Films for the Deaf; available from Special Office for Materials Distribution, Indiana University Audio-Visual Center, Bloomington, Indiana 47401.

Emotional Handicaps

Nature of Condition

There is no universally accepted definition of an emotionally disturbed child. Furthermore, although there are many different theories about the origin, nature, and cure of emotional disturbance in children, there is no generally agreed-on classification system. The most obvious symptom is inability to establish close and satisfying emotional ties with other people. Other children are not attracted to disturbed children, and adults are often bothered by their "disturbing" behavior. Some emotionally handicapped children withdraw from social interaction with others and do not respond to overtures from others. Others respond, but with hostility and aggression. Problems arise when interactions between the child and the social environment are inappropriate.

Children's emotional disturbances have been attributed to three causal categories.

Biologically caused disorders may be genetic, neurological, or biochemical. For the mildly disturbed child, there is seldom convincing evidence that biological factors alone are responsible for the problem. Temperament and disease may predispose, but they are not direct causes.

Family dynamics may be related to emotional difficulties, but it is not possible to find consistent evidence that points to parents as being primarily responsible for children's emotional problems.

Undesirable experiences at school can have profound effects on children and may contribute to the development of emotional problems.

Inappropriate behavior tends to elicit negative responses from peers and adults. Because consistently negative feedback increases the likelihood that the child will behave in undesirable ways; early identification and intervention are very important.

Associated Learning Problems

The emotionally disturbed child may have one or more of the following learning-related problems:

--Difficulty in getting a task done without a lot of prodding.
--Fearfulness of people or situations.
--Difficulty in building or maintaining satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers.
--Excessive shyness or aggressiveness.
--Lack of interest in communicating with or relating to other people.
--Pervasive unhappiness or depression.
--Difficulty in adjusting to changes in routine.

The extent to which an emotionally disturbed child will be able to achieve social studies objectives will depend on the child's comfort and security in the learning environment. An environment that fosters positive interactions between the child and his or her peers and classroom teacher will contribute substantially to the child's interest and ability to achieve. Of critical importance will be the behavior-management strategies that the teacher employs when the child's behavior is disruptive or disturbing.

Strategies for Modifying Instruction

Irrespective of the intent of a lesson in social studies or any other area, a teacher with an emotionally disturbed child in the classroom must be prepared to deliver consistent yet flexible behavior-management techniques that clearly indicate the difference between acceptable and unacceptable actions. For example, a teacher may want to enforce a brief period of social isolation as a consequence of an aggressive act. That should become a consistent management technique; however, a child who is removed and placed in social isolation may need to be talked with privately and reassured, especially if the child was clearly provoked. The consequences of behavior, both acceptable and unacceptable, must be made very clear to children, especially those with emotional problems. To such children, frequently offering honest praise and encouragement during instructional periods is essential.

The achievement of goals by an emotionally disturbed child will require highly motivating lessons that encourage the child to participate. When the child wants to participate, be ready to reinforce that behavior. Efforts to participate in the group, in any way, should receive positive reinforcement.

When an emotionally disturbed child wants to talk, be prepared to be a good listener. Children with behavioral problems need many opportunities to prove to themselves that they are adequate; teachers who hold inappropriate expectations for such children will further undermine their struggles to attain self-esteem.

A child with emotional problems needs opportunities for "letting off steam" as well as a safe place for this to occur. This need may become apparent at inopportune moments, from an instructional standpoint; however, if provisions for meeting it are built into the schedule and into the curriculum, the distracting elements of such behavior can be

reduced. For example, by carefully observing and recording instances of "acting out" behavior, you may become able to predict, with sufficient accuracy, which times and situations contribute to the child's need to let off steam. Perhaps the blowups tend to occur immediately after recess or lunch or during lessons that are frustrating or uninteresting. If such a pattern emerges, you can plan accordingly and provide appropriate activities for the whole class (for example, races or basketball in the gym or outside) or for the child (for example, shooting a spongelike Nerf ball into a cardboard container--a quiet but energy-releasing activity).

You may want to use physical contact--a hug or a pat on the back--as a means of reinforcing appropriate behavior. This is a delicate area for some teachers and students, but one worthy of attention. Emotionally disturbed children need many forms of reinforcement and encouragement, and physical touch can be used very effectively if the student does not withdraw from it. Obviously, physical contact should not be forced. Leave the child alone if he or she pulls away.

Some emotionally disturbed children need help in learning to express their emotions in socially appropriate ways. They will need many opportunities to observe and read about how others express sadness, joy, and fear, for example.

Perhaps the most difficult aspect of teaching an emotionally disturbed child is the danger of providing an inadvertent reward, in terms of special attention, when the child behaves inappropriately; it is all too easy to ignore the child when behavior is appropriate and pay attention only when the child is "disturbing."

Several instructional modifications for emotionally troubled students have particular utility within certain goal areas of social studies. These are listed in Table 6.

Sample Adapted Lesson

An example of an adapted lesson designed to meet a *social participation* goal of the social studies was selected from the McGraw-Hill Social Studies Program, Level 2, *Learning About People* (pp. 42-43 of the teacher's edition). The lesson is reproduced on the following pages. Superimposed on the reproductions are code numbers which correspond to the modifications suggested for an emotionally handicapped child.

Goal(s): To introduce examples of appropriate and effective group behavior.

Code	Suggested Modification(s)
1	--Read along with the child.
2	--Read the hints aloud as you post them. Make sure to give positive reinforcements in response to all suggestions.
3	--Provide a framework for a decision; for example, announce: "We have $2.00 to buy something for the class--what shall we buy?" As the class discusses

Table 6

MODIFICATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR AN EMOTIONALLY HANDICAPPED STUDENT

	Goal Category			
	Knowledge	Skills	Values	Social Participation
Description of Learning Goal(s)	Concepts and generalizations from the social sciences; patterns and systems in the environment; social issues	Analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating; data processing; human relations	Awareness of and appreciation for differences in people	Active involvement in the solution of social problems
Suggested Instructional Strategies	Keep tasks short Make sure material to be learned is at the child's instructional level Present material that appeals to the child's interests Help the child develop awareness of his major body parts and of spatial relationships, using own body as a reference point	Provide opportunities for concrete objects to be used in lessons Encourage tactile exploration	Provide content related to emotions, values, and interpersonal relationships (teacher must be ready to provide support to the child if his or her position is unpopular or criticized by others)	Do not require strict conformity to group behavior or tasks if child cannot handle such responsibility Remove the child from group activity when he or she cannot handle it (this must not be viewed as punishment by child or peers)

Lesson 8
Working Well Together

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PURPOSE OF THE LESSON

To introduce examples of appropriate and effective group behavior.

EXPECTATIONS

Upon completion of this lesson, students will be able to:

Describe at least three behaviors that are helpful to group work.

Recall most of the given examples of constructive group behavior.

Tell about their own behavior in group-work situations.

RESOURCES

textbook, pp. 22–23
butcher paper (optional)
Actionbook, p. 8

READING HINTS (Pp. 22–23)

Main Idea: Ask, "Did you ever see a newspaper? Did you notice that at the top of the page some of the print is very large? This large print is called a *headline*. These words are the important words. They are 'key words' which tell you what the story is going to be about. If you saw these words in a *headline* what would the stories be about? 1. Mets Win, 2. Ship Sinks Off Long Island, 3. Gasoline Supply Low—Prices Up, 4. Lost Girl—Found Safe. The 'key words' in a *headline* give you the main idea of the story that will follow." Instruct the class to look at page 22 in their books to find the "key words" in the first sentence.

STRATEGIES

Because what is wrong is often more apparent than what is right, work on group behavior has begun with a negative approach. But it is not enough for students simply to hear "Don't do it that way." Young children often lack the necessary experience to suggest reasonable substitutes for behavior even when they recognize that it needs modification. In

Here are some kinds of behavior that help people work together. First, find out what the group is going to do. Marvin asks, "What are we going to do?" Agnes says, "We are going to plan a picnic."

Make sure everyone feels good. Jerome is being friendly. But he is not being silly.

Make sure everyone has a chance to talk. Carmen asks Samantha, "What do you think?"

Samantha says, "I think the park is a good place." Samantha shares her ideas. She is helping her group.

Irving is helping, too. He listens to Samantha. He waits for his turn to talk.

Tell about kinds of behavior that help a group.

this lesson, the children will take a more positive approach to group behavior.

Following is a list of behaviors that contribute to effective group work.

Hints for Helping Group Work

1. Know what your group is supposed to do.
2. Share your ideas—take part.
3. Take turns—make sure everyone has a chance to talk.
4. Make sure everyone feels relaxed and friendly.
5. Listen carefully to what others say.
6. Stay calm, even when you disagree.
7. Stick to the point.
8. Reach a group decision.

Beginning the Lesson

Say to students: "In the last lessons, you've learned about some of the characters who cause trouble in groups. Today, you're going to learn some ways to be helpful to a group.

The Lesson

1 Direct the children to pages 22 and 23 of their texts and read the material with them. Have the children discuss any other suggestions they can think of that were not given in the text. Then post your list of hints for group work or write them on the
2 chalkboard. Go over them with the children. (The first four are given in the text.)

Then say: "Some of you may have written a few of these very ideas on your Advice-O-Grams. Does anyone remember an Advice-O-Gram that was suggested in today's lesson?" Students may wish to check their Advice-O-Grams for confirmation.

Say: "I want you to think about the list of helpful hints, because now you're experts! In the next lesson, you'll be putting these new ideas to work in groups. So to get ready for that, we'll form our groups now and talk a little."

EVALUATION

Assign Actionbook page 8. If Actionbooks are not available, divide the class into groups of four or five students each. Tell the groups that in the time remaining, they are to try to recall as many as possible of the eight ways to help a group, without
3 looking at the list.

Circulate through the room as the students work in their groups, and assess the progress they are making. When the discussions have ended, ask each group how many hints it remembered. Each group should have at least six. Next, ask students about their own behavior in groups.

this question, reinforce every example that fits the eight hints.
--If some children just sit and listen quietly, praise that behavior too.
--Share praise with the entire class as each child offers suggestions and explanations.

Sources of Information About Emotional Handicaps

Children Apart (booklet, free), also information and referral service; available from the National Society for Autistic Children, 306 31st St., Huntington, West Virginia 25702.

Fact Sheet: Autism (#79-1877); available from the National Institutes of Health, 9000 Rockville Pike, Bethesda, Maryland 20205.

Visual Impairments

Nature of the Condition

Visual impairment tends to evoke more awkwardness from the non-disabled than any other type of disability--perhaps because such a disability tends to be apparent, or because a sighted person is loath to imagine what life would be like without sight. All too often, a blind or partially sighted person is assumed to be helpless and dependent. This is a natural reaction, but often it reflects an incorrect perception.

There are two ways of defining *visual impairment*: one is legal, and the other is educational. The legal definition involves assessment of visual acuity and field of vision and is used to determine whether an individual qualifies for certain benefits available to the blind. This definition encompasses two categories of visually impaired people: the *blind* and the *partially sighted*. It is important to realize, however, that the vast majority of "legally blind" people have some vision.

Educators have preferred a definition that stresses the method of reading instruction: the *blind* are those who are so severely impaired that they must be taught to read by braille, while the *partially sighted* can read print with the aid of magnifying devices or books with large print.

The major causes of serious visual impairment, in addition to accidents, are glaucoma, cataracts, and diabetes. Glaucoma, the cause of which is unknown, is a condition in which there is excessive pressure in the eyeball. Cataracts are caused by clouding of the lens of the eye, and diabetes can result in blindness from a loss of blood supply to the retina. Prenatal causes include infectious diseases: for example, syphilis and rubella.

Associated Learning Problems

Visually impaired children are likely to do poorly on tasks requiring abstract thinking. They are also at a distinct disadvantage in

appreciating spatial relationships; they will need to develop an appreciation of space by using senses other than vision. However, in general, the visually impaired are not greatly disadvantaged in terms of cognitive development, and they can learn to compensate in many ways.

Clearly, the successful adjustment of visually impaired youngsters has a lot to do with their skill in moving about in their environment. Because some children may be reluctant to move about on their own, much will depend on a child's ability to detect physical obstructions in the environment. This ability is not an "extra sense" but rather a learned proficiency in picking up cues from one's surroundings.

In terms of academic achievement, visually impaired children should have no difficulty keeping up with their peers if they are allowed sufficient time to complete tasks and if the stimuli needed for learning are effectively presented. Likewise, a visually impaired child should have no special difficulty in achieving social studies objectives. Indeed, the social studies, with its wide variety of teaching techniques (audio-visual aids, maps, charts, field trips, group discussions), may be the subject area that presents the least difficulty for both teacher and student.

Strategies for Modifying Instruction

The most obvious modification of instruction for a visually impaired child is to provide auditory substitutes for visual materials and activities. However, it is important to remember that many visually impaired students have some sight, and that large-print materials are useful and readily available.

Helping the child learn to attend to auditory stimuli will be facilitated by the use of tape recorders, "talking books," and sound films. As pictures are presented to the class, oral descriptions can be provided by the teacher or other students.

Providing the child with concrete objects or models to experience and feel is very important. However, since many visually impaired youngsters understandably resist participating in special activities that set them apart as "different," it is important to engage *all* the students in tactile exploration experiences.

A visually handicapped child will need assistance in developing spatial relationships. A good starting point is the child's own body. By developing an awareness of the relationship between body parts and their locations, the child will begin to develop an understanding of his or her orientation in space. Children with vision problems will need to be taught directional words as they acquire skills in exploring their environment.

A teacher can enhance the learning environment for a visually impaired child by ensuring that the classroom is adequately and evenly lit, and that desk surfaces are free of glare and direct sunlight. The use of gray or green chalkboards, unglazed (rough or matté finish) paper, and soft pencils is also recommended.

The teacher can also facilitate the participation of the visually impaired child by using the following strategies: (1) call children by name when responding to raised hands or asking questions; (2) verbalize all material being written on the chalkboard; (3) encourage the discussion of sensory experiences associated with events or pictures; and (4) arrange the seating in such a way that the visually impaired child's face can be seen during group discussions (so that the child's desire to speak can be observed even if the child does not volunteer to do so).

A group discussion or project is ideal for engaging the participation of a visually impaired child. The child can assume a variety of roles in the group: partner to a sighted person, interviewer, observer, and reactor.

For a child who uses braille--and, in fact, for all children classified as visually impaired--the classroom teacher will need the support and guidance of a specially trained resource person. No classroom teacher can be expected to be solely responsible for the instruction of such children.

In modifying instruction, remember that a visually impaired child may have more or better-developed skills than might be expected. Assuming the child to be helpless or dependent is understandable but inappropriate. When in doubt, ask the child if he or she needs assistance and respond accordingly.

Some suggested instructional modifications for helping visually impaired students achieve social studies goals are shown in Table 7.

Sample Adapted Lesson

A lesson designed to meet a social studies *knowledge* goal was selected for adaptation from the McGraw-Hill Social Studies Program, Level 5, *Understanding the United States* (p. 164, teacher's edition). This lesson is reproduced on the following pages. Superimposed on the reproductions are code numbers which correspond to modifications suggested for the visually impaired.

Goal(s): To describe some of the differences in the daily lives of Amish and non-Amish schoolchildren.

Code	Suggested Modification(s)
1	--Read p. 139 aloud for discussion of the word *vocational*.
2	--Verbalize when writing on the board.
3	--Provide large print or braille version, or let the students listen to the passage on tape.
4	--Have children work in pairs, with the handicapped student providing content and another student writing the letter.
5	--Organize this activity as a class project, with ideas being generated out loud and then listed on the chalkboard.

Table 7

MODIFICATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR A VISUALLY IMPAIRED STUDENT

	Goal Category			
	Knowledge	Skills	Values	Social Participation
Description of Learning Goal(s)	Concepts and generalizations from the social sciences; patterns and systems in the environment; social issues	Analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating; data processing; human relations	Awareness of and appreciation for differences in people	Active involvement in the solution of social problems
Suggested Instructional Strategies	Help the child acquire knowledge of immediate environment as a precursor to understanding spatial relationships Use "talking books" and films as part of library research Encourage use of the telephone as a means of gathering information Maximize opportunities for interviewing as a data-gathering technique	Keep charts and graphs simple Help the child organize his or her examination of charts and graphs Provide practice in using keys on maps Use tactile charts and maps whenever possible (but with only the significant elements tactile) Use special equipment as needed Use teaching aids produced by American Printing House for the Blind, Perkins School for the Blind, and American Foundation for the Blind	Orient the child in advance for field trips Use class discussion frequently (make sure that all students identify themselves by name before speaking)	Provide opportunities for all students to work with the child in pairs and small groups

Lesson 20
Growing up Amish

PURPOSE OF THE LESSON

To describe some of the differences in the daily life of Amish and non-Amish school children.

EXPECTATIONS

Upon completion of this lesson, students should be able to:

1. Compare an Amish school with their own.
2. Compare daily life of an Amish child with their own.

RESOURCES

Textbooks, pp. 135–139
Actionbooks, pp. 41–42

READING HINTS (Pages 135–139)

Vocabulary Development: Teach the words *vocational*, from *vocation, a calling*. Have the students read page 139, paragraph 2, to use contextual clues to define the word.

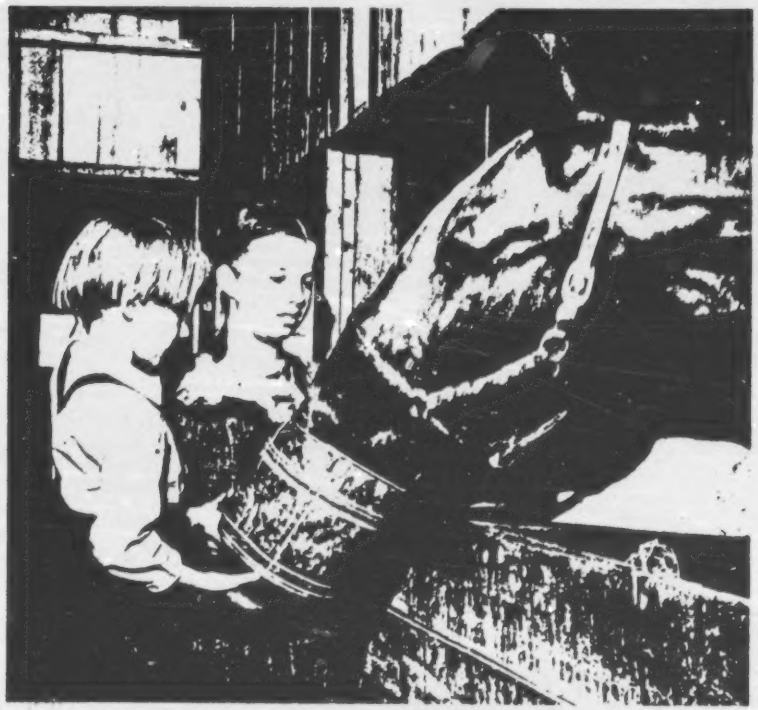
Concept Development: Discuss *vocation* with students and have them use it with relation to their hopes or plans for their own future. Help them to grasp the difference between a job, which may be only temporary, and a vocation, which entails a lifelong involvement in or dedication to a craft or profession. Discuss with the students the differences and similarities between the way the Amish children prepare for their future work and the preparation that is required for careers the students may choose.

Have you ever heard the old saying: "As the twig is bent, so grows the tree"? The twig stands for the child. The tree stands for the adult. This saying means that your childhood is very, very important. What you learn when you are young may stay with you through your whole life.

Let's look at some of the things Amish children learn. As you read, compare these things to what you are learning. Are some of them the same? Are some of them different?

By 6:00 A.M. on weekdays, most Amish children are up and doing their chores. They feed the cows or chickens and bring in wood for the stove.

These children have many chores to do before they leave for school.



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Skating to school.

After a big family breakfast, Amish children head for school. The school is usually a mile or more from home. Some children ride on small school buses. A few may go by horse and buggy. The oldest boy in the family usually drives the buggy.

The Amish use one-room schoolhouses built years ago when most people in the United States lived on farms. When necessary, they have built new one-room schoolhouses. These schoolhouses usually have no indoor plumbing.

About thirty children, from six to sixteen years of age, share one classroom. Usually there is one teacher and two teacher's helpers. They are usually Amish. They take turns teaching the various age groups in the class. For example, while the teacher talks to the ten- and eleven-year-olds, the other students read quietly or do other schoolwork. Later, the teacher turns to other age groups. The ten- and eleven-year-olds then do their quiet work.

BACKGROUND

In order to perpetuate the Amish culture, it is necessary to introduce the young early and repeatedly to the values and norms of the group. This means that everything one does during the formative years is designed to maximize the likelihood that the young will enter adulthood as members of the Amish group. This includes not only the work associated with this life-style, but also play. Amish parents, and Amish adults in general, are cognizant of the need for the younger members of the group to be given a degree of latitude at times. They recall their younger days and their experiences associated with bending or temporarily breaking Amish customs and, in so doing, often will turn their back when the younger generation similarly indulges in deviations from the norm.

STRATEGIES

2 Before you assign the reading in the student text, write the following on the board: "As the twig is bent, so grows the tree." Ask students to think a minute about the meaning of the phrase. If the students seem to be having difficulty with it, ask: "What do you think would happen if we were to take a seedling tree which is growing straight up and slowly train it to grow in a different direction?" When the meaning of the saying is clear to students, ask them: "What two things are necessary for the saying actually to happen?" The answer involves, first, a repeated or constant effort to bring about the desired outcome (training); and second, that the object being trained (bent) should be young. (You might want to mention an opposite saying: "You can't teach an old dog new tricks.")

CAREER AWARENESS

Explain that there are many more program offerings in most vocational schools than those mentioned for the Amish. Have a vocational education teacher talk to the class about:

- trade and industrial education
- distributive education
- health occupations
- business and office education

Have some parents and others from the community come to class and talk with the students about how they prepared for and learned their jobs.

students to read pages 135 through 139 in their text. When they are ready, discuss the implications of the saying to humans—Amish children being a case in point. Use the end-of-lesson questions as a guide to the discussion.

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EVALUATION

Ask students to pretend they are visiting an Amish school for a day. Have them write a letter to a friend describing their experience and comparing it with their own school.

Have the students complete actionbook pages 41–42. If Actionbooks are not available, have the students list ten things they have done this week and have them place a check mark next to the things Amish children might also have done. Then have them list ten thing Amish children might do in a typical week and have the students place a check mark next to the things they might also have done.

Amish children at a one-room schoolhouse.

The one-room schoolhouse teaches Amish children that they are all one group. Even though there is a big difference in sizes and ages, they are all Amish.

The subjects most Amish children study are:

Bible (in German)
reading (English)
spelling (English)
penmanship (English)
arithmetic
geography
Amish history

The schoolbooks they use are written especially for Amish children.

The Amish do not believe that their children need a lot of schooling. Amish children stay in school only as long as the law requires. Children in our country must go to school until they are sixteen. But Amish schools only go to the eighth grade. If Amish students went on to high school, they would have to go to a public school with non-Amish teachers and

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Do you study the same subjects in school as these Amish children?

children. The Amish do not want this. High schools do not teach children Amish values only.

Some states have let the Amish set up *vocational* schools to follow the eighth grade. The word *vocational* means "having to do with jobs." In the vocational schools, Amish students prepare for the jobs they will do as adults. They learn more about farming and caring for the home.

1. On a sheet of paper, write the headings *Alike* and *Different*. Then, under each heading, list the ways an Amish school day is similar to or different from yours.
2. Name some things an Amish boy or girl might find strange about your school.
3. Why do you think Amish parents do not want their children to go to non-Amish high schools?
4. Do you think your parents would want you to go to an Amish school? Why or why not?

Sources of Information About Visual Impairments

When You Have a Visually Handicapped Child in Your Classroom: Suggestions for Teachers (FEL 057), *Braille Alphabet and Numerals* (FIS 025), *Helen Keller* (FIS 033), *Dog Guides for the Blind* (FML 029), *Facts About Blindness* (FIL 031), *How Does a Blind Person Get Around?* (FML 034), *Louis Braille* (FIS 040); all available free from the American Foundation for the Blind, 15 W. 16th St., New York, New York 10011.

Some People Are Too Busy to Sit Around Feeling Sorry for Themselves, *For Young and Old and In-Between*, *Mission Not Impossible*, *When You Meet a Blind Person*; all available free from the Columbia Lighthouse for the Blind, 2021 14th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009.

My Weekly Reader (braille edition), *Creative Arts and Crafts*; both available free from the American Printing House for the Blind, 1839 Frankfort Ave., Louisville, Kentucky 40206.

A catalog of special styli, slates, and materials for preparing braille messages is available free from the Howe Press of the Perkins School for the Blind, Watertown, Massachusetts 02172.

Speech and Language Disorders

Nature of the Condition

Language is the communication of ideas through symbols according to grammatical and semantic rules. Children with language disorders have difficulty communicating orally. Perhaps they cannot derive meaning from what they hear or are unable to express their ideas in words. If youngsters do not develop language at the expected time, they are said to exhibit *delayed language*.

Speech is the process of forming and sequencing the sounds of oral language. Speech is said to be *disordered* when the sequencing and forming of sounds produces ungrammatical, unintelligible, or personally unsatisfactory results.

There are three major types of disorders of speech. *Articulatory disorders* are present if listeners perceive the omission, substitution, addition, or distortion of speech sounds. *Voice disorders* are characterized by aberrations in pitch, loudness, and/or quality that are abusive to the larynx or displeasing to the speaker or listener. *Disorders of speech flow* are patterns of stuttering and gaps of silence which call negative attention to the speaker and interfere with the speaker's ability to be understood.

Speech and language disorders can be *organic*--that is, caused by a neurological or structural (for example, brain injury) abnormality. Those that are not organic in origin are considered *functional*. Some functional disorders are caused by known psychological or environmental factors; however, for the majority of functional disorders the causes are unknown.

Associated Learning Problems

Delayed speech and language are particularly common among the severely retarded or disturbed because of the interdependency of cognitive, language, and social/emotional development. Children with severe academic learning problems are likely to have speech and language disorders as well. However, the focus of this section is on the child who does *not* have a serious handicap in addition to defective speech and language and who is likely to receive all or almost all academic instruction in a regular classroom.

The child's attitude toward his or her own deficiency is a very important variable when considering the child's learning capabilities. Persons with speech defects sometimes pay a heavy price in terms of rejection or overprotection, and the results can be anxiety, guilt, and hostility. However, in other cases the psychological damage may be very slight.

It is imperative that children with speech and language disorders be identified as early as possible so that appropriate treatment and/or remediation procedures can be implemented. The classroom teacher plays a critical role in the identification process because he or she observes the child on a daily basis in a natural setting in which the child's adequacy in communicating can best be determined. If you suspect that a problem exists, seek the help of a suitable specialist--usually a speech clinician. After observing and assessing the adequacy of the child's hearing, articulation, voice, speech, and language the specialist can work with you to find ways of helping the child on an individual basis.

The following symptoms may indicate a speech or language disorder and should alert you to seek further evaluation:

--The child is silent much of the time.

--The child points or gestures instead of making verbal requests.

--The child seems generally slow to learn.

--The child is tense during speech, clenching fists or making facial contortions.

--The child displays speech production irregularities; for example, stuttering, mumbling, excessive repetition, distortions (omitting sounds from words).

Most children with speech and language disorders should be able to achieve social studies objectives as well as their nonhandicapped peers. Much will depend on their self-confidence and the extent to which they are accepted by their peers.

The manner in which the classroom teacher relates to the child is very important. It is important to make it enjoyable for the child to talk, as well as act as a very receptive audience. Although it may be difficult to ignore speech irregularities, try to concentrate on and respond appropriately to the affective and cognitive content of the child's speech.

Table 8

MODIFICATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR A STUDENT WITH SPEECH OR LANGUAGE DISORDER

	Goal Category			
	Knowledge	Skills	Values	Social Participation
Description of Learning Goal(s)	Concepts and generalizations from the social sciences; patterns and systems in the environment; social issues	Analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating; data processing; human relations	Awareness of and appreciation for differences in people	Active involvement in the solution of social problems
Suggested Instructional Strategies	Encourage written responses if child prefers them Do not force the child to talk Place child near source of information (speaker, tape recorder)	Provide a variety of ways for child to demonstrate skill acquisition in addition to oral responding Encourage gestures and pointing if appropriate to the situation	Encourage other students to accept and value persons with oral communication deficiencies	Provide roles for child that will facilitate active participation but minimize embarrassment (taking notes, preparing posters)

Strategies for Modifying Instruction

Instructional modifications appropriate for a child with a speech or language disorder apply not only to the social studies but equally to all facets of the elementary program. The teacher will need to provide extra time for oral responses to a child who is dysfluent or a stutterer. The child will need ample opportunity to listen to correct speech which is appropriate to the child's language level and interests. Children with speech disorders also need encouragement to listen to themselves in order to recognize their own articulation, voice, and speech-flow characteristics. (The speech clinician will be able to provide suggestions about taping the child's voice.) It is important to anticipate impatience and/or unaccepting attitudes on the part of peers when a child with a speech disorder is speaking or reading aloud, and be ready to modify the situation accordingly.

Table 8 identifies specific instructional modifications designed to help children with speech and language impairments achieve social studies goals.

Sample Adapted Lesson

A lesson designed to help students achieve social studies *skill* goals was selected from the McGraw-Hill Social Studies Program, Level 5, *Understanding the United States* (p. 42, teacher's edition). This lesson is reproduced on page 59. Superimposed on the reproduction are code numbers which correspond to modifications suggested for children with speech and language disorders.

Goal(s): To reinforce the students' knowledge about climate; to introduce the students to graphs as tools for presenting data.

Code	Suggested Modification(s)
1	--Before the lesson, provide an opportunity for the student to practice saying the word *graph* and other terms that will be used in the lesson.
2	--Let all the students take turns responding nonverbally to the questions by pointing to the answers on the graph on the chalkboard or transparency.

Sources of Information About Speech and Language Disorders

How Does Your Child Hear and Talk?; available from American Speech and Hearing Foundation, 10801 Rockville Pike, Rockville, Maryland 20852.

Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 19-27 N. Jackson St., Danville, Illinois 61832 (several inexpensive books and booklets; write for catalog).

General Readings on Speech Handicapped (short bibliography); available free from ERIC Clearinghouse for Handicapped and Gifted Children, 1920 Association Drive, Reston, Virginia 22091.

Lesson 7
Graphing Temperature and Precipitation

PURPOSES OF THE LESSON

To reinforce the students' knowledge about climate.

To introduce the students to graphs as a way to present data.

EXPECTATIONS

Upon completion of this lesson, students will be able to:

Construct a line graph showing precipitation data.

Interpret the data on a line graph.

RESOURCES

graph paper
ruler
climate data
overhead projector (optional)
overhead transparency (optional)
Actionbook, pp. 4–5

BACKGROUND

The climate data used in this lesson are for Kalamazoo, Michigan. They represent thirty years of records averaged into one value for each month. Therefore, some months may exceed the average presented here and others may not equal the thirty-year average.

Data is given in both metric system and the U.S. Customary system. Use whichever system your students are more familiar with.

Since there is a lot of material in this lesson, you might decide to complete it in two days.

STRATEGIES

Start this lesson by asking how many students know what a graph is. Then tell them that a graph is a picture that helps to explain data. Tell them that today you are going to help them make graphs to show temperature and precipitation data.

1

Before this lesson, prepare an overhead transparency of a sheet of graph paper. If an overhead projector is not available, draw a graph-paper grid on the board.

Temperature data for Kalamazoo, Michigan are presented in the table below. Record these on the chalkboard. Distribute graph paper to each student. Ask the students to follow you as you prepare a line graph of the temperature data.

Month	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Temperature °C	−3	−3	0	6	15	21	23	22	18	12	4	−2
Temperature °F	26.6	26.6	32	42.8	60	69.8	73.4	71.6	64.4	53.6	39.2	28.4

1. Start by asking the students what two things are given on the data chart. (months and degrees) Tell them that the graph will show these two things also.

2. Draw a horizontal and a vertical axis on the transparency and direct the students to do the same on their graph paper.

3. Label the horizontal axis "Month." Write the abbreviation for each month on a separate line.

4. Label the vertical axis "Degrees Celsius" ("Fahrenheit," if you use that scale). Label each line up from the bottom, beginning with −3 (if using °C).

5. Ask the students to look at the table and tell you what was the average temperature in January. Show them how to place a dot on the graph at the spot where −3°C and January intersect.

6. Continue plotting the dots for all of the months.

7. Direct the students to draw a line connecting all of the dots.

8. Ask the following questions to encourage students to read and interpret their graphs: What month was the warmest? What was the average temperature in that month? What months were the coldest? What was the average temperature in those months?

2

9. Have students complete Actionbook pages 4–5. If you have no Actionbooks, have the students obtain weather data of your community and graph it.

Reminder: Read the strategies for Lesson 8, as you will need to gather some information prior to the lesson.

EVALUATION

Remind students that precipitation is also a component of weather. Present the following data for average precipitation in Kalamazoo, Michigan.

Distribute a sheet of graph paper to each student. Direct them to draw a line graph to show the precipitation data on this table. On the back of their graphs, have them write and answer three questions about the data on the graph.

Month	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Precipitation in mm	59	50	66	80	98	94	18	72	81	77	70	59
Precipitation in inches	2.36	2.0	2.64	3.2	3.92	3.76	3.12	2.88	3.24	3.08	2.8	2.36

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Physical Disabilities

Nature of the Condition

Children who are impaired in kinetic or motor functions are described as physically disabled. One of the most common causes of physical disabilities is damage to or deterioration of the central nervous system--the brain, the spinal cord, and surrounding areas.

The most prevalent physical disability is cerebral palsy (CP), which results from brain damage before, during, or shortly after birth. Some children with CP may also have hearing problems, visual impairments, perceptual disorders, and speech defects, and some are also mentally retarded; however, it is unlikely that a physically impaired child who is also mentally retarded will be mainstreamed.

Spina bifida is the second most common birth defect; it is a congenital defect of the spine and nervous system which causes paralysis of muscles. Most children affected with spina bifida need braces and crutches or are confined to a wheelchair, and many have learning problems as well.

Other physical impairments include missing limbs, osteomyelitis (an infection of the bone), "club foot," and scoliosis (curvature of the spine). Traumas, accidents, genetic defects, and infectious diseases can all cause impairment.

Associated Learning Problems

The severity and cosmetic appearance of the handicap affect the responses of others to a disabled person. If those responses are overwhelmingly negative, physically disabled children may isolate themselves socially and emotionally. Depending on the type of physical disability and the extent to which other learning or communication impairments are present, the following learning-related problems might be expected in a physically disabled child who is mainstreamed:

--Poor gross and/or fine motor coordination.
--Early onset of fatigue.
--Poor eye-hand coordination.
--Body tenseness and tendency to startle easily.
--Difficulty in mastering self-help skills.
--Jerky or shaky motions and uneven body movements.

The extent to which social studies objectives can be achieved by physically disabled youngsters depends largely on the extent to which other problems--for example, hearing or speech difficulties--are present. If the problem is solely one of mobility or coordination and the child is functioning adequately in other respects, there is no need for revised expectations on the part of the teacher. If communication impairments are present, achievement of learning objectives will depend on the teacher's ability to present information in ways that permit the child to receive and understand the information and on the child's ability to use alternative modes of expression.

Table 9

MODIFICATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR A PHYSICALLY DISABLED STUDENT

	Goal Category			
	Knowledge	Skills	Values	Social Participation
Description of Learning Goal(s)	Concepts and generalizations from the social sciences; patterns and systems in the environment; social issues	Analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating; data processing; human relations	Awareness of and appreciation for differences in people	Active involvement in the solution of social problems
Suggested Instructional Strategies		Provide opportunities to practice eye-hand coordination Provide activities that promote perceptual development (matching games, discrimination tasks) Shorten lessons if necessary to avert fatigue	Provide ample opportunities for the child to share feelings and ideas Provide opportunities for the child to be touched	Build in roles that the child can implement Anticipate architectural barriers on field trips, etc.
	Carefully explore the range of the child's abilities; do not limit evaluation to standardized procedures Use special equipment when needed Make sure that all equipment and materials are accessible to the child			
	Design projects with the child's abilities and limitations in mind (some physically disabled students might have difficulty constructing or drawing, but they could prepare taped or typed materials).			

Since each child's problems and abilities are different, it is difficult to make a definitive statement about physical impairments. Almost without exception, classroom teachers will need assistance from resource personnel in determining the extent to which modifications in classroom environment and instructional strategies will be needed.

Strategies for Modifying Instruction

The presence of almost any kind of physical handicap may result in fatigue; thus, most disabled children will require additional time in order to complete certain kinds of activities. However, if the additional time required would disrupt the schedule for the whole class, it is better to shorten or otherwise modify the activity so that all members of the class can participate together.

Children whose physical handicaps have severely restricted their mobility may not have experienced the same preparatory events that nonimpaired children typically experience--for example, going to the grocery store alone or riding a bus. Thus, they may be deficient in their understanding of certain concepts or in mastery of particular skills. Students with fine-motor-coordination problems may have difficulty using standard writing implements; such children may need special equipment or alternative methods for expressing themselves.

The self-esteem of a physically disabled child may be low. Providing ample opportunities to achieve success will enhance self-esteem, as will encouraging the child to do things independently whenever possible.

For a child who is tense, it is important to avoid abrupt changes in routines and lessons and to minimize distractions.

In addition to these general suggestions, several instructional modifications have particular utility for social studies goal areas. These are listed in Table 9.

Sample Adapted Lesson

A lesson designed to meet social studies *valuing* goals was selected for adaptation from the McGraw-Hill Social Studies Program, Level 3, *Exploring Communities* (p. 135, teacher's edition). The lesson is reproduced on page 63. Superimposed on the reproduced lesson are code numbers which correspond to modifications suggested for a physically disabled child.

Goal(s): To provide an opportunity for decision making; to illustrate the idea that people will exchange goods they have in order to obtain goods they value more.

Code	Suggested Modification(s)
1	--The child may need help in preparing a poster. Perhaps two children could work together.
2	--Allow ample time for the disabled child to select an item and find its owner; here again, students could work in pairs if the disabled student has insufficient mobility to accomplish this alone.

Lesson 18
The Exchange Game

PURPOSES OF THE LESSON

To provide an opportunity for decision making.

To illustrate the idea that people will exchange goods they have in order to obtain goods they value more.

EXPECTATION

Upon completion of this lesson, students should be able to:

Apply the decision-making model to an experience.

RESOURCES

items for exchange
12- × 18-inch construction paper, tag board, or poster board
crayons or paints
Actionbook, pp. 30–31

BACKGROUND

This is a two-day lesson designed to review the decision-making model, put the students in decision-making situations, and cause interaction among the students. They will be involved in a trading activity in which each will try to exchange goods he or she has for goods he or she values more.

A few days before you plan to start the lesson, ask the students to bring something to school that they no longer want or use. It could be a book, a game, a toy, or a stuffed animal, for example. The items are to be concealed and revealed to no one. Put them in a closet or storage area for the first day. If some students are hard-pressed to supply an item, contact an agency in your community that may be able to help. The lost-and-found office in your own school may contain suitable items.

STRATEGIES

Tell the students that they are going to play a game. The game involves the choices and decision making that they have been studying in the last few lessons. Explain that they will bring a toy-type item to class and keep it a secret from the rest of the class.

When the items have been properly hidden away, review the economic decision-making model with the class. Explain that they will be trading for something they want. Their income or "money" is the item they brought for the exchange. The costs may involve making a second selection because they did not get their first choice. A second cost is giving up the item they brought.

Distribute the poster-making supplies and let the students make posters advertising their items. Display the posters. Allow time for the students to examine the ads and select items they would like to have. 1

On the second day, display the items advertised by the students. Allow time for them to browse and examine the items to see if the one chosen from the poster is still the one wanted. The trading begins after the students have had ample time to select an item and find its owner. Allow sufficient time for all the students to have a good chance for exchange. Those who finish first may begin Actionbook page 30. It is a "Summary and Evaluation" exercise. 2

Discuss the trading procedure with the class. Collect data on the chalkboard which may be graphed by some students (or all, if you like). Which items were the most popular? The least popular? Why? What were some things that influenced the trading? How did you go about determining a value for the items? How many completed a successful exchange?

The posters may be left up for a few days or taken home. The students may require a short time to enjoy the fruits of their exchanges—in other words, to play with the item they got in their exchange. If this is built into the lesson, it will prevent problems. The time should come shortly after the exchange has been completed.

EVALUATION

The Actionbook exercise provides a summary and evaluation. You may want to have the class further evaluate the lesson orally as a group.

Have several students restate the decision-making model in their own words, based on their experiences in this lesson. This will help you evaluate their understanding of the model.

Sources of Information on Physical Disabilities

From Problem to Solution: The New Focus in Fighting Environmental Barriers for the Handicapped (#L-103; $0.10), *A Special Child's Room* (#A-272; $0.25), *An Introduction to Your Child Who Has C.P.* (#A-204; free), *Clothing: An Asset or a Liability* (#A-253; $0.10), *Why Did This Happen?* (#E-17; $0.25); all available from the National Easter Seal Society, 2023 W. Ogden Ave., Chicago, Illinois 60612.

Life Can Be Beautiful for People with Cerebral Palsy, *What Is Cerebral Palsy?*, *Cerebral Palsy: Facts and Figures*, *What You Should Know About Cerebral Palsy*; all available free from the United Cerebral Palsy Association, 66 E. 34th St., New York, New York 10016.

Access Travel: Airports (free); available from the Consumer Information Center, Pueblo, Colorado 81001.

Services for Crippled Children (#HSA 77-5216; free); available from the Bureau of Community and Health Services, Rockville, Maryland 20857.

Spina Bifida (free); available from the Spina Bifida Association of America, 209 Shiloh Dr., Madison, Wisconsin 53705.

4. ASSESSING STUDENTS' ACHIEVEMENT

In successful mainstreaming, emphasis is placed on setting objectives in terms of individual learners and their particular needs. In turn, assessment of student achievement must be based on those objectives. Since mainstreamed children should be assessed in terms of objectives set for them as individuals, their performance need not be compared with that of the nonhandicapped students.

In this chapter, the goal categories of the social studies (knowledge, skills, values, and social participation) described in Chapter 2 will be used as a framework for a discussion of assessment strategies. While the means of assessment presented here are not so precise as those used in evaluating performance in reading or mathematics, they can provide useful feedback to the teacher about how students are responding to social studies instruction. They are applicable to both mainstreamed and regular students. Insofar as possible, the techniques suggested represent alternatives to traditional paper-and-pencil tests, which may not be appropriate for all mainstreamed students. The example provided for each handicapping condition may be adapted to other conditions by using the guidelines in Chapter 3.

Knowledge

Understanding concepts is one important kind of social studies learning. In assessing whether a student understands a concept, we need to know whether he or she can identify an example of the concept--or, better yet, create an example of it. We may also want to know whether the student understands various characteristics or attributes of the concept. In evaluating concept learning, it is important that the child's ability to state the concept verbally not be confused with genuine comprehension.

Let's suppose that a third-grade teacher is teaching about the concept of cooperation. The criterion for identifying this concept which is emphasized during instruction is that cooperation takes place when at least two people are helping each other in some way. To find out whether most of the students understand the concept, the teacher presents three pictures one at a time and tells the students to hold up their hands if a picture shows cooperation.

The first picture is of a boy working alone on his front steps, fixing his bicycle. In this picture the boy is helping himself; it is

not an example of cooperation. The second picture shows two children decorating a classroom. One is standing on a chair fastening letters on to a bulletin board; the other child is handing thumb tacks to the first child. This picture represents an example of cooperation. The third picture depicts two people filling their baskets at a supermarket. Since each of these persons is working alone and not helping the other, it is not an example of cooperation. If most of the children hold up their hands in response to the second picture, the teacher has one indication that they understand the concept.

Another task students might be given is to find pictures illustrating cooperation in picture books, textbooks, or magazines. Children can be asked to explain how their pictures show cooperation. In each of these techniques children are asked to discriminate between examples and nonexamples of the concept.

Skills

Thinking skills, human-relations skills, and data-processing skills are the major kinds of abilities that can be developed in social studies.

Thinking Skills

A teacher who emphasizes teaching children how to investigate problems will be interested in knowing whether students can form hypotheses, collect data, and draw conclusions. To assess these skills, the teacher might ask the following questions:

--Which of the following sports do you think is the favorite of most students in the class--tennis, football, baseball, or basketball? (To answer the question, the student will have to form a hypothesis.)

--How could you find out whether your guess is correct? (The student should answer that the only way to find out would be to ask each of the other students which of the four sports he or she prefers and tally the results of the survey.)

Let the student actually make such a survey and record the results in the form of a list of students' names and their sports preferences. Then ask:

--Now that you have collected this information, which of the four sports would you say is the favorite of the most students in the class? (The answer requires forming a conclusion on the basis of the data collected.)

Depending on the child's particular handicap, the way in which the evaluation tool is administered may need to be varied. Some children would need to have it administered individually, perhaps read to them. Others might be able to complete it in a group setting.

In assessing thinking skills, teachers should also be interested in testing the ability of children to think at such higher levels as application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

Application. In one of the student activities described in Chapter 5, children learn about petitions and their purpose and how they are

designed. In order to determine whether they can apply their knowledge, students could be given the following task:

> Suppose your class has decided that the baseball field on your playground needs a new backstop. You want to show the principal, the school board and the PTA that a lot of people feel that a new backstop is needed. What would be one good way of demonstrating support for this idea? Why?

Analysis. One aspect of analysis is being able to distinguish fact from opinion. The following exercise is one example of testing for this ability.

> Tell the students that they will be given six written statements. They are to think about each one, decide whether it is likely to be a fact or an opinion, and place a check mark next to each statement that represents an opinion. (Examples of statements that might be used are provided below.)
>
> 1. It was 80° yesterday afternoon.
> 2. It's too hot out today.
> 3. We have too much homework.
> 4. Yesterday I borrowed two books from the library.
> 5. My favorite television show is on tonight.
> 6. Watching television is more fun than playing baseball.

There are, of course, other kinds of analysis questions. One good basic reference is Chapter 8 of the *Handbook of Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning*, by Benjamin S. Bloom et al. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971), which contains explanations and examples of the basic principles involved in analysis.

Synthesis. The process of putting together elements and parts to form a whole is known as synthesis. Here, the student is involved in producing something new--a story, a poem, a plan for a club, or a model of a city of the future. Synthesis is a creative process, and its products cannot be measured against predetermined expectations.

Let's suppose that children have been taught the following generalization: *Both culture and physical environment influence the way people use the land on which they live.* A generalization of this kind provides a context for assessing whether a child had developed synthesis abilities, by means of the following exercise:

> Provide the students with a detailed physical description of a hypothetical location in which they are to imagine they have settled. The physical environment is finely detailed. Ask each student to design a home that people could build in this area that would be comfortable to live in. Explain that the drawing is

to include both an outside view and a floor plan. Do not set any specific criteria except that the building must be made of materials that are found in the local environment.

Evaluation. Simply described, this is the process of making a judgment on the basis of a particular set of criteria. Evaluation is a difficult process whose learning requires experience and practice.

Suppose that students have studied about several U.S. cities, as they often do in the third grade. Working in small groups of four or five, they identify the qualities of an ideal city and then justify their choices. (Why are these qualities important?) Finally, they are asked to decide which of the cities they have studied comes closest to matching their profiles of an ideal city. Each group should be asked to provide information and evidence in support of its decision. This discussion can be tape recorded for subsequent analysis. Undoubtedly some children will participate more actively than others; however, the task should provide some indication of whether children can engage in thinking, to some degree, at the evaluation level.

Interpersonal Skills

Interpersonal or human relations skills can be described in various ways. The breakdown provided here is based on a book by David W. Johnson called *Reaching Out* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1972). Interpersonal skills are divided into four areas: (1) knowing and trusting each other, (2) accurately understanding each other (communication), (3) influencing and helping each other, and (4) constructively resolving problems and conflicts in a relationship.

There are many interesting activities that can be used to develop children's skills in these four areas. One that can also be used for assessment is presented below.*

> Have students form groups of four or five. Distribute copies of Handout 1, "Survival on the Moon," to every student and read them the instructions. Once individual judgments on the rankings have been made, distribute a copy of Handout 2 to each group. Explain that the members of each group must somehow find a way, through discussion, to arrive at a unanimous agreement on all 15 rankings. Within each group, students should try to analyze the task logically and support only those solutions that seem reasonable. Explain that they should avoid "giving in" in order to prevent arguments, "trading off" positions, or reaching decisions through a simple majority vote.

While the students are discussing the rankings, designated observers (tutors or volunteers) can watch each group looking for the suggested behaviors designated on the checklist in Figure 1, which is

*Excerpted from Peter H. Martorella, *Elementary Social Studies as a Learning System* (New York: Harper and Row, 1976), pp. 246-47.

Handout 1

SURVIVAL ON THE MOON

Instructions: You are a member of a space crew originally scheduled to rendezvous with a mother ship on the lighted surface of the moon. Because of mechanical difficulties, however, your ship was forced to land at a spot some 200 miles from the rendezvous point. During the landing, much of the ship and the equipment aboard was damaged. Since survival depends on reaching the mother ship, the most critical items still available must be chosen for the 200-mile trip.

Below are listed the 15 items left intact and undamaged after landing. Your task is to rank them in order of their importance in allowing your crew to reach the rendezvous point. Place the number 1 by the most important item, the number 2 by the second most important, and so on through number 15, the least important.

_____ Box of matches

_____ Food concentrate

_____ 50 feet of nylon rope

_____ Parachute silk

_____ Portable heating unit

_____ Two .45-caliber pistols

_____ One case of dehydrated milk

_____ Two 100-pound tanks of oxygen

_____ Map of the stars as seen from the moon

_____ Life raft

_____ Magnetic compass

_____ 5 gallons of water

_____ Signal flares

_____ First-aid kit containing injection needles

_____ Solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter

Handout 2

RECORD SHEET

Instructions: Use this sheet to record the group decision and the decisions of each person in the group about the relative importance of each of the 15 items.

Items	Group Ranking	#1	#2	#3	#4	#5
Box of matches	_____	—	—	—	—	—
Food concentrate	_____	—	—	—	—	—
50 feet of nylon rope	_____	—	—	—	—	—
Parachute silk	_____	—	—	—	—	—
Portable heating unit	_____	—	—	—	—	—
Two .45-caliber pistols	_____	—	—	—	—	—
One case of dehydrated milk	_____	—	—	—	—	—
Two 100-pound tanks of oxygen	_____	—	—	—	—	—
Map of the stars as seen from the moon	_____	—	—	—	—	—
Life raft	_____	—	—	—	—	—
Magnetic compass	_____	—	—	—	—	—
5 gallons of water	_____	—	—	—	—	—
Signal flares	_____	—	—	—	—	—
First-aid kit containing injection needles	_____	—	—	—	—	—
Solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter	_____	—	—	—	—	—

designed to evaluate interpersonal skills related to this exercise. Using such a checklist requires careful attention on the part of the observer; however, it can be a useful tool for ensuring that the teacher is assessing the interpersonal skills of all the students according to a consistent set of criteria. Similar checklists could be created for measuring such qualities as cooperation, responsibility, and respect for others.

Data-Processing Skills

The skills treated in this category are related to using maps and globes and interpreting charts and graphs.

Map and Globe Skills. Five map and globe subskills are commonly taught in the elementary grades. These are the abilities to:

--Orient a map and note direction.
--Recognize the scale of a map and compute distances.
--Locate places on maps and globes by means of grid systems.
--Express relative location (how places are related to each other culturally, politically, religiously, and historically as well as by geographical location).
--Read map symbols.

Examples for assessing two of these subskills are presented in this section.

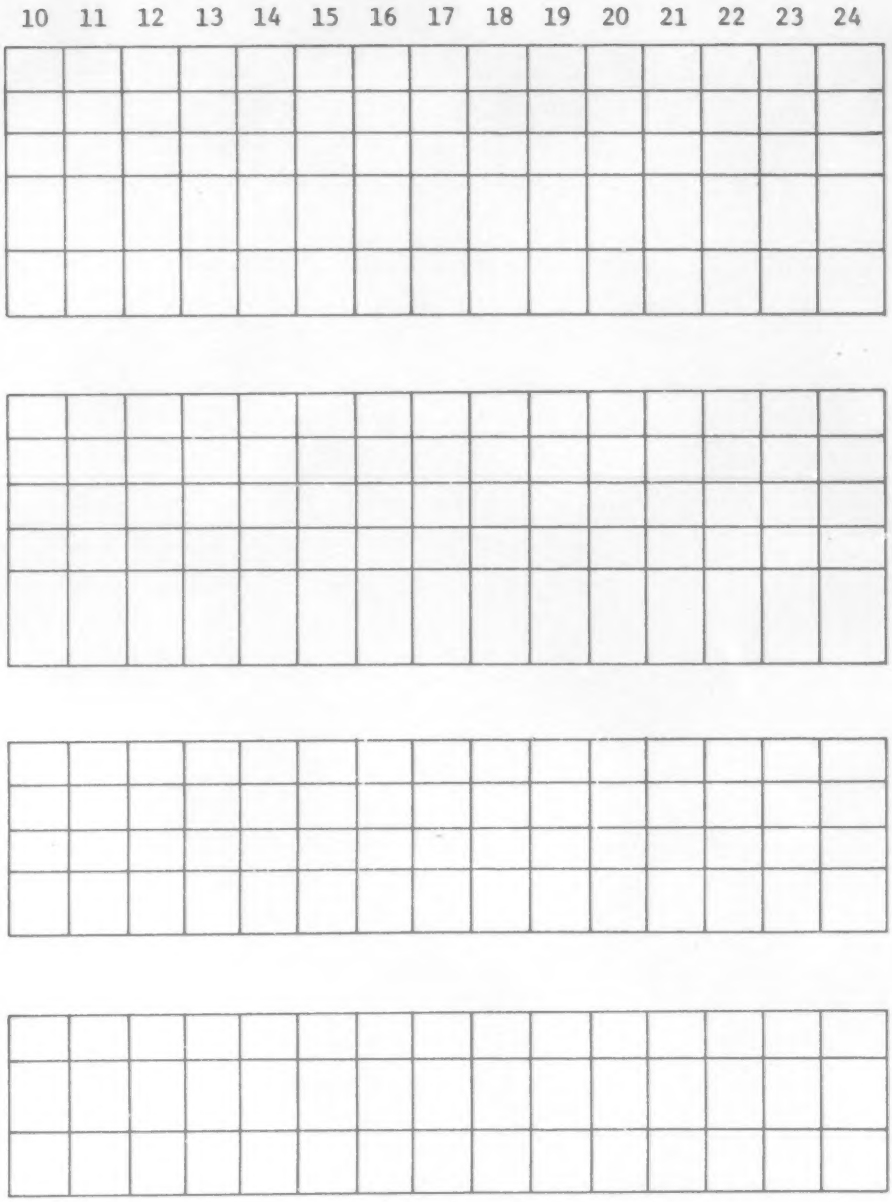
Orienting a map and noting direction. Assessing the ability to orient a map and note direction can be done in the following way in the primary grades:

> Give each student four squares labeled "N," "E," "S," and "W." Then distribute a map of the school. The compass on the map should indicate "North" and the arrow should point to the right-hand side of the map. Ask students to find north (north is not always at the top of a map) and decide whether it is at the top, bottom, right, or left side of their maps. Repeat these four directions aloud slowly and ask the children to hold up their "N" squares when you say the correct location. This activity should provide a quick indication of students' abilities to orient a map. Follow up by asking questions similar to the following examples:
>
> --You are in the office and you want to go to the library. In which direction will you walk?
>
> --You are in the teacher's lounge and you want to go to the third-grade classroom. In what direction would you walk?
>
> --You are at the front door of the school and you want to see the school nurse. In what direction will you need to walk?
>
> After each question, children should hold up the appropriate square.

Figure 1

INTERPERSONAL SKILLS CHECKLIST

Skill	Student (by number) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
Knowing and Trusting Each Other	
Engage in appropriate self-disclosure.	
Be supportive of others.	
React openly to others.	
Give feedback on the basis of behavior (not the person).	
Focus his/her feelings.	
Communicating With Each Other	
Accurately paraphrase others' comments.	
Make "I" statements.	
Express self clearly in verbal statements.	
Express warmth and friendliness.	
Express self nonverbally in a manner consistent with verbal statements.	
Influencing and Helping Each Other	
Make supportive responses.	
Make responses that show understanding.	
Make probing responses.	
Avoid evaluative responses.	
Resolving Problems and Conflicts	
Be open about opinions and feelings.	
Provide useful nonevaluative feedback to others.	
Communicate acceptance of others.	


10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24

Locating places by means of a grid system. In the intermediate grades it is appropriate for children to learn to locate places by means of a grid system. To test this ability, use a globe--preferably a large one--and explain that the class will be playing a travel game. Give them a sequence of instructions similar to those that follow:

> --Begin the trip at 3°N and 90°W. Where are you?
>
> --Go due south. What country do you reach at 20°N?
>
> --Start traveling east at 20°N. What continent do you come to?

While these two examples illustrate only two subskills dealing with maps and globes, both activities can be done in large groups without the need to resort to paper-and-pencil tests.

Interpreting and Making Charts and Graphs. Graphs come in several forms: circle graphs, bar graphs, and line graphs. One way of determining whether children can understand graphs is to provide them with samples of several kinds and ask them questions. For example, if you used the line graph in Handout 3 you might ask the following questions.

> --How many fights were there on Friday?
>
> --What pattern does the graph show? Are there more fights at the end of the week or at the beginning?
>
> --What might be one reason why there are more fights on Friday than on Monday?

Another way of assessing skills in using graphs would be to provide certain information and ask the students to make graphs that would be appropriate to that information. For example:

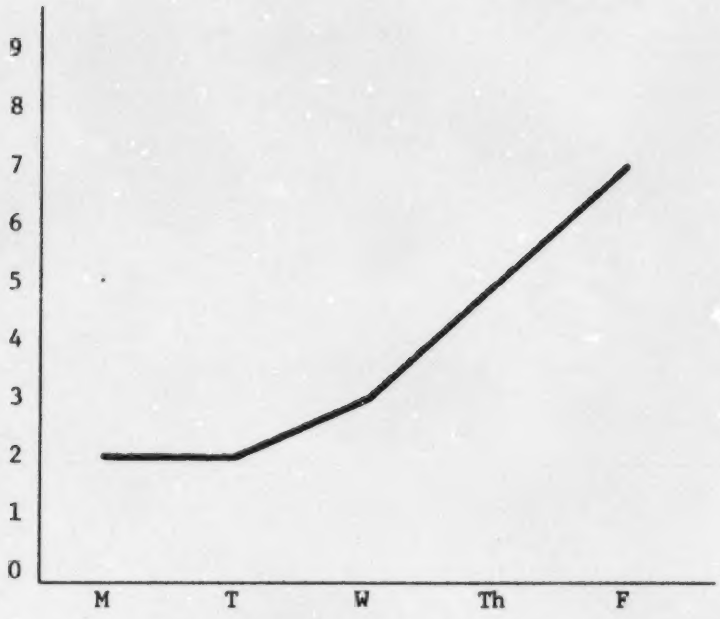
> Suppose your allowance is $1.00 a week. You spend 25 cents on candy, 30 cents for paper, and 50 cents at the movies. Draw a graph that shows this information.

Values

Valuing also involves many subskills: identifying feelings, values that guide decisions, and alternatives; predicting consequences; making decisions; and justifying decisions in terms of personal values. To see if students can identify feelings and values associated with a variety of situations, read them a short story about a character who faces a dilemma. An example is provided on page 76.

Handout 3

LINE GRAPH



No. of Fights on Playground This Week

THE STORY OF ANNIE*

Life was hard on a 13-year-old girl growing up in the inner city. Annie sat in one of the two rooms of the flat where she lived, which served as kitchen, diningroom, and livingroom. The rickety chair groaned as Annie bent over holding her stomach, which ached for food. The persistent crying of her twin brothers brought Annie back to reality. She knew they were not playing outside because, like herself, they were painfully hungry. What could she do?

Annie had carefully prepared the last two eggs for lunch the day before, dividing them equally among the twins and herself. She had eaten each bite slowly and carefully, making sure nothing was left on her plate. The twins had eaten greedily and asked for more, crying louder than ever when Annie told them there was nothing left in the house to eat. That night, all three had gone to bed hungry.

Annie's mother had gone away from home before, but always after a few nights she had come back. She had never stayed away so long. Maybe something bad had happened! But Annie couldn't think about that--her stomach would not let her. The gnawing pain would not let up, and Annie knew that she must do something soon. She had heard the other kids in the neighborhood bragging about going into Mr. Brady's grocery store and taking candy. Could she take some food from the store without getting caught? The kids had made it sound so easy. "Just act casual, as though you were just looking around," they had said.

Gathering up the last of her strength, Annie called to the twins: "Boys, I'm going to the store. When I get back, we can have some supper."

The twins were silent for a moment; then two tear-stained faces turned to her, eyes wide. "Oh, hurry, Annie! We're so hungry!"

All the way to the store Annie kept telling herself to be calm, to act casual. She knew the store by heart because she had been there hundreds of times. Over her shoulder she carried one of her mother's old pocketbooks. It was empty now, so there was plenty of room to put things in.

Suddenly she was standing in the doorway of the store. A flash of fear and guilt went through her.

*Adapted from an unpublished story by Valerie Mutton, an elementary education major at Florida State University.

She had never stolen before. But how could she face going back to her brothers, telling them there would be nothing to eat, watching the hopeful eyes turn to despair and tears? She took a deep breath and pushed open the door.

Oh, thank God! There were customers in the store. Since Mr. Brady ran the store by himself, he would be busy checking out their items. Annie walked in quickly, hoping that Mr. Brady would be too busy to notice her. From behind a row of shelves, she turned to look at him. No, he hadn't seen her; he was busy at the front ringing up a sale. Opening the shoulder bag, Annie picked up two cans of soup and dropped them in. Two cans of soup had never felt so heavy.

On the shelves opposite the canned goods were the cookies. It had been so long since she had tasted something sweet. Wouldn't the boys be excited if she brought home some cookies! She glanced up and down the aisle. All clear! Picking up the bag of cookies, she placed them hurriedly in the shoulder bag.

There was still plenty of room left in the bag, so Annie walked down the next aisle, hoping no one would be there either. What luck! This was easier than she had ever dreamed! There, in the open refrigerator case, were the eggs. She carefully placed a carton in the bag and turned to walk down the aisle to leave the store. There, five feet from her, stood Mr. Brady. He stood very still, hands folded across his chest, eyes stern and reprimanding. Her heart sank. She had been caught!

After the story is read, students can be asked to identify the feelings experienced by Annie and the storekeeper as well as the values that probably guided their behavior. Subsequently, they can be asked what other actions Annie might have taken and the possible consequences of each.

Social Participation

Participation skills are those abilities that enable an individual to be an effective citizen. Although children at the elementary level may be somewhat limited in the citizenship activities in which they can participate, with the help of the teacher they can acquire some experiences that lay a foundation for more extensive involvement in junior and senior high school. For example, elementary pupils can make rules for their classroom and take part in student court and student council meetings. They can organize to change school rules, raise money to buy equipment for the school playground, arrange to have trash removed from a nearby lot, or lobby for a stoplight at a busy corner. They can plan a school assembly to sensitize students (or parents or both) to environmental issues or to promote such themes as cultural pluralism. All

these projects involve setting goals, cooperating, leading, exercising responsibility, selecting and implementing strategies, and evaluating the success of the effort.

Such activities can best be assessed through systematic observation. A checklist like the sample below is a useful tool.

GROUP PROCESS CHECKLIST

1. Did all members contribute to group planning? ____
2. Did group members listen to each other? ____
3. Did group members listen to the leader? ____
4. Did the group agree on a set of goals? ____
5. Did the group develop a plan? ____
6. Did all group members agree to help execute the plan? ____

5. PROVIDING FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

The mainstreaming of disabled youngsters into regular classrooms necessarily widens the range of individual differences that confronts the elementary teacher. However, differences between children is a condition to which most elementary teachers are thoroughly accustomed. Indeed, most observers of schools would emphasize that elementary teachers, as a group, are more aware of and more sensitive to such differences than teachers at other grade levels. Substantial differences in motivational level, interests, and socioeconomic and cultural background, as well as in intellectual ability, have always characterized elementary classrooms.

However, mainstreaming may require more-extensive modifications in teacher behavior and classroom procedures than were needed previously. Blind children, deaf children, mentally retarded children, emotionally disturbed children--all will present new challenges as teachers seek to integrate them with other students and at the same time strive to improve both social competence and academic achievement.

Teachers need assistance from various kinds of resource persons in these efforts; they cannot be expected to do it all themselves. Without such support, feelings of hostility and resentment are likely to result.

Sources of Help for Teachers

The single most important source of help to a teacher with a mainstreamed child in the classroom is likely to be the special education teacher (sometimes called resource teacher or itinerant teacher) who has been assigned to help plan and execute that child's instructional program. Specific suggestions for working effectively with such specialists are provided elsewhere in this book. However, teachers should not overlook the additional sources of help described in this section.

Peer Tutors. Managing a mainstreamed classroom, with its wide range of individual differences and its demands for individualized instruction, can be a challenge for a teacher. At any given moment there are likely to be several students needing the teacher's help and attention. Under optimal conditions, the teacher would have the assistance of one or two aides. However, since teacher aides are not available in many situations, the teacher may have to rely on other resources.

One resource lies in the students. It is possible for competent students to serve as tutors for some of their peers who are having difficulty with certain aspects of learning. These peer tutors will require special training to be able to operate effectively. While such training requires time and effort, the assistance of peer tutors is likely to improve the quality of instruction for all students in a mainstreamed classroom. In addition, the tutors benefit from the experience of helping others. The tutors and the students whom they are attempting to help need to be provided with a quiet place to work. Finally, the work of the tutors must be evaluated. (For details about implementing a peer tutoring program, see Johns, Rudan, and Sherman 1976.)

Cross-Age Tutors. Not only classmates can act as tutors; older students in higher grades can serve in this role as well. Indeed, assistance provided by older students may be more readily accepted by pupils needing help. Here again, it is necessary to train the tutors to work with students, to provide a quiet place for tutors and students to work, and to evaluate the tutors' work. Cross-age tutoring requires a schoolwide commitment on the part of the principal and other teachers. Administrators of mainstreamed schools need to be supportive of such efforts.

Volunteers. It is possible to solicit volunteer help from parents, grandparents, and retirees. While such adults will also require some training, they will probably need less monitoring and supervision than students.

The use of each of these potential sources of help--peer tutors, cross-age tutors, and volunteers--should be seriously considered by teachers in mainstreamed classrooms. Taking advantage of one or more of these human resources will ensure more individualized attention for students and provide enriching interpersonal experiences for all parties involved.

The Individualized Education Program (IEP)

Public Law 94-142 states that each handicapped child who needs special education and related services must be provided with an individualized education program. Teachers, according to the law, are "full participants" in specifying the nature of the program. (Full participation means attendance at meetings during which the child's educational objectives are identified by a team consisting of parents, teachers, administrators, and support personnel.)

The written statement that constitutes the individualized educational plan must include the following components:

1. A statement of the child's present level of educational performance, including academic achievement, social adaption, prevocational and vocational skills, psychomotor skills, and self-help skills.
2. A statement of annual goals, including short-term instructional objectives.
3. A statement of the specific educational services to be provided.

4. Estimation of the extent to which the child will be able to participate in regular education programs.

5. The projected date for initiation and anticipated duration of such services.

6. Appropriate objective criteria, evaluation procedures, and schedules for determining, at least on an annual basis, whether instructional objectives are being achieved (Abeson and Weintraub 1977, pp. 3-8).

If the education of handicapped youngsters is to be complete, of course, the instructional program must not be limited to reading and math. Social studies must also be included (along with art, music, science, etc.). The reasons for the importance of social studies have been stated earlier in this bulletin. However, in spite of the subject's importance, most IEPs do not specifically mention social studies.

One reason for this situation may be that the social studies curriculum is not linear in development: unlike the case with reading or math, it is not possible to identify a specified set of skills that should be learned in a particular sequence. Further, because social studies content and objectives vary within grade levels, it is impossible to say that a child is "at the 2.2 level" in social studies, as one can in math and reading. For example, a third-grader in one school, using one particular textbook series, may be studying different cultures around the world. In another school district, using another textbook series, third-graders may be studying communities in the United States. Given such variation in content, it is impossible to define the expected achievement of students according to grade level. However, there is nothing to prevent a teacher from identifying social studies objectives for a particular student in a given year and making them part of the individualized education program.

A sample IEP with social studies objectives is provided in Figure 2. (The goals listed were derived from the Scott, Foresman Social Studies Program for grade 2, published in 1979.) The student, Martha Hunt (a fictitious name), is mildly retarded. She has been assigned to a regular second-grade classroom. We hope that this example will be useful to teachers in helping develop individualized education programs.

Strategies for Dealing With Differences

Grouping

One method for dealing with differences in students is ability grouping. In elementary classrooms, one typically finds three ability groups in reading and three groups in math. While ability grouping makes instruction more manageable, it does not take into account individual differences in motivation or interests. If overdone, ability grouping can adversely affect children's academic self-concepts. Grouping based on interest or motivation level holds greater promise for improved social interaction as well as academic achievement.

Figure 2

INDIVIDUALIZED EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Goals and Objectives

Student's Name Martha Hunt BD 11/6/70 Manager Joy Lee

School District/School Cumberland/Woodley Implementors Joy Lee and Jane Hart

Instructional Area Social Studies Date 9/15/79

Goals Statement(s): Year-Long Social Studies Goals

Goal No.	Behavior Sought/Objectives	Teaching Strategies/ Special Media & Materials	Criteria for Success	Date Start	Date Accomp.	Evaluation Schedule
1.	Knowledge					
	Learn the following generalizations: --People make decisions. --People have feelings; these feelings influence their actions. --The environment affects people. --People influence each other. --People have needs and wants. --People meet their wants and and needs in a variety ofways.	Use examples that are personally relevant to the child. Carefully sequence the lesson. Use pictures wherever possible to exemplify concepts. Minimize reading mode; replace with discussions, movies, taped stories, picture books.	Martha will be able to give two examples of each generalization.	9/15	5/15	As appropriate

Goal No.	Behavior Sought/Objectives	Teaching Strategies/ Special Media & Materials	Criteria for Success	Date Start	Date Accomp.	Evaluation Schedule
	--Both leaders and followers are needed by groups. --People depend on other people. --People are both alike and different. --Learning changes people. --People can bring about change.					
2.	Skills: Map & Globe					
	Locate the cardinal directions on a map. Interpret map symbols.	Use a map that depicts an environment familiar to the child (e.g., Martha's neighborhood). Provide opportunities to practice each task. Make map symbols as concrete as possible. Provide positive reinforcement at each step. Carefully sequence lessons. Determine skill acquisition of each component of task.	Given a description of the section of the map in which a specific location is found, Martha will point to the correct section.			As appropriate
	Compute distance between places on a map, using the map scale.		Given a map legend, Martha will correctly			

Goal No.	Behavior Sought/Objectives	Teaching Strategies/ Special Media & Materials	Criteria for Success	Date Start	Date Accomp.	Evaluation Schedule
			name what each of the symbols stands for. Given a map scale, Martha will correctly compute the distances between five sets of locations on a map.			
2.	Skills: Thinking					
	Group items, pictures, or places on the basis of explicit criteria. Make generalizations about the ways in which families and other groups are alike and different.	Use familiar objects for comparisons. Use pictures of familiar objects and places. Teach the concepts of likeness and difference.	Given a list of new data (pictures, items, places), Martha will organize it into groups and state the criteria she used for each group. Given comparable data on two groups of people, Martha will be able to state two generalizations describing how			As appropriate

Goal No.	Behavior Sought/Objectives	Teaching Strategies/ Special Media & Materials	Criteria for Success	Date Start	Date Accomp.	Evaluation Schedule
			these people are alike and two generalizations about how they are different.			
2.	Skills: Human Relations					
	Listen to others in a small-group discussion. Make contributions in a small-group discussion.	Reinforce appropriate responses. Limit distractions. Make certain that instructions are clearly understood.	In a group setting, Martha will listen attentively to other members of the group. In a group setting, the teacher will observe Martha make contributions to the group discussion.			As appropriate
3.	Valuing					
	Make decisions and give reasons for decisions concerning the following topics: --The ways in which she would decide to be like her friends and the ways she would not.	Provide concrete examples from Martha's immediate environment. Use examples that are personally relevant.	Given an open-ended dilemma, Martha will be able to identify at least three possible actions			As appropriate

Goal No.	Behavior Sought/Objectives	Teaching Strategies/ Special Media & Materials	Criteria for Success	Date Start	Date Accomp.	Evaluation Schedule
	--The rights people have. --Whether or not to follow a leader. --Needs and wants. Identify consequences of specific actions. State how personal decisions are related to values.		and the consequences of each. Given such a dilemma, Martha will be able to make a decision and give at least two reasons for her decision. Martha will be be able to identify the values that guided her decision.			
4.	Participation					
	Write a letter to the editor of the local newspaper about a community problem studied in class. Create a plan for influencing the principal to change a specific school rule.	Provide ample time for preparation of the letter. Provide opportunities for several drafts. Reinforce at every stage.	Martha will write a letter to the editor that clearly describes a social problem in the community and advocates a solution (judged			As appropriate

Goal No.	Behavior Sought/Objectives	Teaching Strategies/ Special Media & Materials	Criteria for Success	Date Start	Date Accomp.	Evaluation Schedule
		Seek peer assistance in developing plan.	by the teacher).			
		Encourage rehearsal of plan.	Martha will describe her plan for influencing the principal to change a specific school rule (judged by the teacher).			

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Mainstreaming heightens the attention that must be paid to individual differences. The children who are mainstreamed into a given classroom clearly must not be thought of as a single homogeneous group whose learning needs are virtually identical. A deaf child may be highly motivated and enjoy myriad interests; for such a child, learning tasks may simply have to be redesigned so that the hearing deficiency is not an obstacle. However, an emotionally disturbed child who is easily distracted and reluctant to participate in certain activities requires a different set of instructional modifications. Both children are not likely to profit from participating in the same group of learners.

Though it may be natural for teachers to think of their students as "the regulars" and "the mainstreamed," instructional decisions must not be made on this basis. Certainly, if ability groups are formed, not all of the mainstreamed children should be assigned to the "low" group.

Ability grouping in the social studies is a rare practice. Typically, students are taught this subject as a total group with little accommodation to any kind of individual difference. Too often, all the students read the same textbook pages, answer the same questions, watch the same films, and do the same projects. One alternative is an individualized instructional approach that incorporates grouping for certain purposes. The term *individualized instruction*, used in this sense, means adapting instructional procedures to fit each student's individual needs so as to maximize learning and development (Gronlund 1974, p. 2). The reader should note that this strategy relies on instructional procedures that bridge the gap between a learner's needs and what needs to be learned. This definition does not preclude the use of grouping as a means of meeting certain needs or facilitating certain learning outcomes.

Mastery Learning

Mastery learning is based on the assumption that most children, given sufficient time and appropriate instruction, can accomplish what is expected of them in school. There is no predetermined percentage who will fail, nor is there assumed to be a small, privileged group that will succeed optimally. In short, mastery learning rejects the concept of grading "on the curve." Students are not pitted against each other. Rather, each student's success depends on meeting specified criterion-referenced objectives. The following steps are involved in implementing a mastery learning approach in elementary social studies with students who represent a wide range of learning abilities:

1. The teacher needs to specify precise objectives for each social studies unit. Some textbook series will present the teacher with such objectives; others will not. In any case, the teacher should examine the objectives presented against the following framework of questions as they apply to social studies:

    a. Knowledge
        --What concepts should the student learn?
        --What facts should the student learn?

--What generalizations or principles should the student learn?

--What procedures should the student learn? (E.g., skills in map reading, communication, inquiry, chart construction.)

b. Skills

--What thinking skills should the student learn? (E.g., comparison, categorization, application, analysis, inquiry skills.)

--What human relations or communication skills should the student be able to use? (E.g., listening, giving feedback, making an oral report.)

--What data-processing skills should the students be able to use? (E.g., interpreting maps, charts, graphs, reading materials.)

c. Valuing

--What values or value issues can students examine in this unit?

--What opportunities for decision making exist within this unit?

--If such opportunities exist, what skills can be developed? (E.g., decision making, inferring values from situations, relating decisions to values.)

d. Participation

--Are there opportunities for students to organize group projects that will influence their classroom, school, neighborhood, or community in this unit? If so, what skills can be developed? (E.g., leadership, group membership.)

Figure 3 presents a possible set of criterion-referenced objectives that were derived after applying the framework described above to a widely used social studies textbook. While these are not the only objectives that could be built around this segment of textbook material, they represent a comprehensive set of social studies goals. Because they are designed for students without identified handicapping conditions, they would need further modification for specific learners with handicaps. We have provided this list with the intent of demonstrating that regular teaching materials can be used as a basis for identifying individualized social studies objectives. Obviously, in developing such a list of objectives the teacher in a mainstreamed classroom must make sure that the objectives fit the various needs of all the children. The result should be a set of criterion-referenced objectives which set the framework for what is taught.

2. The teacher needs to develop ways of assessing each objective. Chapter 4 presented a sample of assessment techniques based on the objectives presented in Figure 3. The purpose of these assessment techniques is to provide feedback to the teacher about student learning, not to provide a basis for grading. If students are not doing well on the assessments, the teacher knows that either instruction needs to be modified or objectives need to be changed.

Figure 3

SOCIAL STUDIES OBJECTIVES: PEOPLE CHOOSE THEIR LEADERS*

Knowledge

--Given illustrations of an election ballot, a petition, and a letter written to a legislator, the student will correctly identify the petition.

--Given a description of a political process in a hypothetical community, the student will identify the four parts of a political process.

--The student will be able to state two reasons why elections are a desirable way of choosing leaders.

--The student will explain how he or she is part of the political process in the classroom.

Skills

Thinking Skills

--The student will compare and contrast the qualifications of two candidates for office. At least two points of comparison must be identified.

--Given the statement "People should always vote, whether or not they are informed," the student will state whether he or she agrees and give three reasons why.

Communication Skills (persuasive communication)

--The student will prepare a five-minute presentation to the principal urging that school rules about bike riding should be changed. At least two reasons should be included. The student will make the presentation orally in class.

Data-Processing Skills (graph interpretation)

--Given a graph showing the percentage of people who voted in the last three city elections, the student will predict the turnout for the next election and give at least one reason for the prediction.

Values

--Given short speeches by two candidates for office, the student will identify at least two values held by each candidate.

--The student will decide which of the two candidates he or she would vote for and give two reasons why.

--The student will decide whether he or she would like to run for a class office and give two reasons why.

Social Participation

--The student will participate in a small group that is working on changing the school's bicycle rules by writing a letter to the principal, making a poster, or planning an announcement for an assembly.

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*Based on *People and Places*, Teacher's Edition, Silver Burdett Social Studies Series, by Joseph H. Dempsey with Abraham Rasneck (Morristown, N.J.: Silver Burdett, 1979), pp. 219-226.

3. With the help of the teacher's guide (though no teacher needs to rely on this source exclusively), the teacher develops learning experiences for the total group which are designed to facilitate each of the learning objectives. These learning experiences may include specific kinds of concept lessons, reading the text, use of role playing, small-group discussion, group projects, etc. At the same time, the teacher needs to be mindful that additional or alternative learning experiences may be necessary for some youngsters. Therefore, it is necessary to provide alternative ways of achieving the same learning objectives.

4. After assessment, students should be given corrective feedback by the teacher and additional experiences should be provided as needed. At the same time, students who have met the objectives can work on enrichment activities or independent projects. A useful device for accommodating these learning differences is a learning center made up of a number of individual learning stations at which students can work on either unmet objectives or additional projects of their choice.

The system described above is based on the following principles:

--Social studies is as essential as any other area of the curriculum and should receive commensurate attention by the classroom teacher.

--Most children can learn what is expected of them if they are given enough time and appropriate instruction.

--Specifying objectives and developing means of assessment sharpens the focus of instruction for the learner as well as for the teacher.

--Learning should not be time-based. Some youngsters will take more time than others.

--Not all learners learn in the same way. Especially in mainstreamed classrooms, teachers cannot rely solely on total group instruction.

--Students need to know where they are succeeding and where they are deficient. The teacher must supply corrective feedback frequently and make provision for alternative ways of learning.

6. TEACHING "REGULAR" STUDENTS ABOUT HANDICAPPING CONDITIONS

The successful achievement of social studies objectives will be highly dependent on the handicapped child's interest and motivation, which in turn are dependent on the youngster's feelings of acceptance--feelings that he or she is perceived as an acceptable, full-fledged participant in the classroom, in the social group. Thus, the successful integration of a handicapped child rests heavily on the actions, interest, and efforts of the nonhandicapped students. The support and encouragement of peers is of central importance to the success of the mainstreaming effort.

This chapter suggests ways in which a classroom teacher can facilitate the development of positive attitudes in nonhandicapped students by using learning experiences, books, films, and simulations.

Using Learning Experiences

With the implementation of Public Law 94-142 and the placement of more and more handicapped children into regular classroom settings, many nonhandicapped youngsters may be having their first encounters with handicapped individuals. Children are quick to notice differences in others: slow speech, uncoordinated movements, inability to read, withdrawal from social participation. Children who have not had previous exposure to these kinds of differences may develop (or may already possess) attitudes which are based on misinformation or on misunderstanding of what it means to be handicapped. Before the handicapped child has had an opportunity to attempt to participate or communicate, he or she may be viewed as a target for ridicule, as an object of pity--or, sadly, as a source of fear.

It is important for people in all age groups to develop an awareness of how they perceive handicapped individuals and to understand that every person--even though mentally or physically handicapped, socially or economically deprived--is capable of such human feelings as love, hate, happiness, and sadness. Young people, especially, need to understand their own needs and values and how these factors affect their behavior. They need to be aware of similarities and differences in people and how easy it is to form stereotypes about groups of people on the basis of such characteristics as race, sex, physical ability, intelligence, and sociocultural status.

A variety of learning activities can be used to instill an understanding of and a genuine appreciation for differences in people. Such activities should not concentrate only on cognitive understanding; to do so would ignore the more-important affective aspects of how it feels to be handicapped. Furthermore, a strictly cognitive approach would fail to take advantage of the emotional energy present in young people which can be channeled into experiencing, rather than simply learning about, the uniqueness of individual others. To present only the common characteristics of various disabilities would encourage the very kind of stigmatizing process that the mainstreaming movement is designed to avoid; thus, the approach must be via an alike/different continuum, rather than a normal/abnormal continuum.

The ideal plan would be to provide opportunities for students to experience situations and events affectively and then to analyze those affective experiences in the broader context of the social environment. In this way, the students will develop awareness of their affective reactions and become sensitized to the affective needs of others. Whether such activities are used separately or as a coordinated unit, they should be designed to achieve the following learning goals:

--To understand differences within people and the reasons for handicapping conditions (knowledge).

--To recognize society's responses to the handicapped (skill, knowledge).

--To appreciate the feelings of the handicapped (values).

--To recognize how some handicaps are more difficult to overcome than others because of the social environment (values).

--To offer suggestions for improving the social environment of the handicapped (social participation).

A good starting point might be a discussion about individual differences--focused initially on the various children's strengths and later (in a very delicate manner) on some of their weaknesses. Begin by encouraging self-analysis, and move on to a discussion of the relationship between skills and acceptance. (For example, how important is it that a child be able to play basketball in order to be accepted?)

At that point, the students could role-play a situation involving a new student with a severe facial scar. The new student tries to be accepted but is not; he responds by acting like a bully and becomes further isolated as a result. The ensuing discussion would deal with the relationship between feelings about another person and behavior toward that person.

The students may need help in defining the concept "handicap." A film would provide a good stimulus. (See list of suggested films at the end of this chapter; your local librarian or media specialist probably can suggest others.) Discussion should focus on each youngster's personal conception of a "handicap." Next, introduce an activity sure to be frustrating to the students--one which they will be unable to complete--and again pose the question: What is a handicap?

At this point, the students probably will need direction in beginning to formulate a functional definition of a handicap: an undesirable

difference, something about an individual that is different from most people and not usually accepted. Ask the students to list as many handicapping conditions as they can. They may need help in identifying the major categories (mental retardation, visual impairment, etc.). Depending on the awareness and maturity of the students, you may want to provide factual information about each handicapping condition that is discussed. A variety of sources can be used for such background information--among them, pamphlets and brochures distributed by national organizations for the handicapped and books expressly designed for teaching children about handicapping conditions. (See lists of recommended print resources at the end of this chapter and in Chapter 3.)

Experiences that simulate specific impairments can offer insights into what it is like to be handicapped in particular ways. Being blindfolded and led around by a "sighted" child is one such experience; viewing a film out of focus is another. (Additional simulations are described at the end of this chapter.)

Reading a well-written children's book in which the main character is handicapped can help students both learn about a specific handicapping condition and identify with a handicapped person. Or readers can learn about the handicapped through the "eyes" or "thoughts" of a fictional brother or sister. (Criteria for selecting books, suggestions for using children's books to stimulate thoughts and feelings, and an annotated list of selected books can be found elsewhere in this chapter.)

Other activities to acquaint the student with the realities of being handicapped might include scheduling field trips to ghetto areas, special schools, or rehabilitation centers and asking students to serve as tutors for other students who have been labeled as handicapped. The students might also want to invite a handicapped adult to visit the classroom and share his or her experiences.

To help students realize that society has certain negative role expectations for a handicapped person, you might use a simulation in which one student is confined to a "wheelchair" (use an ordinary classroom chair). Explain that every time this student attempts to carry out a task, the other students are to immediately offer assistance; as a result, the person in the "wheelchair" never completes the task alone. The ensuing discussion should focus on the "dependent" role, needs for independence, and others' needs to be "helpful."

Students also need to become aware of the impact of architectural barriers on disabled persons. A field trip to a facility that allows easy access for physically handicapped individuals would be desirable, especially if it were scheduled in conjunction with a visit to a facility that makes no such accommodations. Students may need help in identifying architectural barriers.

Students will also benefit from exposure to mechnical devices used by some handicapped persons. Since some such devices may be frightening, students will probably need some time and perhaps some assistance in becoming comfortable with such items.

It is important to encourage students to develop their own personal philosophies about "handicapping conditions." The opportunity to watch

a state wheelchair basketball tournament not only would be exciting, it would help students understand the battle to overcome architectural barriers, the modification of the game to meet individual needs, and the attempt to overcome the stigma of being excluded from athletic events.

Finally, students will benefit immensely from opportunities to participate in efforts to enhance the social and physical environment in which their handicapped peers must live. They might write letters to the local newspaper urging the elimination of architectural barriers, on the basis of their own observations, or they could volunteer to work in various capacities with handicapped persons. Some students might want to join a class to learn braille or sign language; others could do research on the availability of special services within a particular community. The possibilities are almost unlimited.

The long-term goal of such activities is to prepare youngsters for the future, when, as adults, they will have a hand in deciding the future of others. Ideally, they will promote the acceptance of the handicapped as individuals--as persons like all others, but with certain special needs.

Using Children's Books

When the disabled child is seen as more "like" than "different"--as someone similar in many ways to other students--companionship and other kinds of social interaction are more easily achieved. Exposure to new ideas can alter or eliminate generalizations that are inappropriately associated with a disability. Books that focus on handicapped individuals can be used with the nonimpaired to facilitate changes in attitude and introduce or interpret information. Literature can be a powerful aid in altering misperceptions that impede integration. This section of the chapter offers some guidelines for choosing appropriate books for children in addition to an annotated list of exemplary books.

Certainly, in selecting resources for teaching students about handicaps, the basic criteria for selecting a "good" children's book must not be overlooked: the overall appeal of the cover, title, and illustrations; the accuracy with which the setting is portrayed; the believability of the plot; the clarity and accuracy of the language used by the author. However, two considerations are paramount in selecting a book on handicapping conditions: character development and emotional tone.

Character development is an important aspect of any book; incomplete or unbelievable characterization detracts from the impact of a story. A character with a handicapping condition must be treated as a real person; heroic, talented, or otherwise admirable handicapped people must be portrayed as credible and natural. Saintliness in a character is not credible. Illustrations or photographs must portray handicapped children as they really are; efforts to hide impairments are counterproductive. Ideally, the pictures should convey the message that handicapped children have the same needs for fun and affection that all youngsters have.

The issue of emotional tone is more difficult to assess. Compassion may be a desirable approach, but empathy would be even better. (For an excellent discussion of this sensitive issue, see Baskin and Harris 1977, pp. 56-59.)

Another issue that requires particular attention is the use of violence. The existence of many books in which violence is directed against characters with impairments is not surprising because of the common perception of the handicapped person as "victim." If it has the result of causing the reader to react angrily to pain unfairly imposed by society, the occasional use of violence can be instructive and may serve a useful purpose.

If books are to be used effectively to promote social integration, they should be introduced in the primary grades. Reading aloud, discussion, role play, and the creation of alternative endings are just a few of the ways children's books can be used at this level. The various aspects of a single book can be examined on several different occasions; a single story session is not going to produce an immediate positive response.

Books that not only present positive attitudes toward the disabled but also convey good historical information and a sense of life in former times are natural supplements to the social studies curriculum. It is important for young people to know that, years ago, many persons perceived disability as being a punishment for sin.

Related fictional works can be an invaluable aid for any unit or lesson focused on the handicapped. The following books, all written with honesty and sensitivity, are useful and appropriate for children in the elementary grades.

Alcock, Gudrun. *Turn the Next Corner*. New York: Lothrop, Lee, and Shepard, 1969.

The main theme of this book is that people with handicaps feel the same way that nonhandicapped people do about pity and embarrassment. It is an excellent, sensitive portrayal about inner-city problems as well as those of the physically handicapped.

Armer, Alberta. *Screwball*. Cleveland: World, 1963.

This is a story about a little boy named Mike who had polio before he was three. By winning a soap box derby, he triumphs in his inner battle with self-acceptance and self-esteem. He realizes that even though his physical handicap will always prevent him from participating in certain activities, he has the ability to be successful in his own way. The characterizations in this first-person narrative are outstanding, and the relationships between children in the story are realistically drawn, making this a book with great reader appeal.

Fassler, Joan. *Howie Helps Himself*. Chicago: Whitman, 1975.

Without stating the name of the handicap, this book describes some of the problems of a little boy with cerebral palsy. The book

begins by telling of some things Howie likes to do and then discusses several things he cannot do. The story includes Howie's family--his mother, father, sister, and grandmother--and tells about all the things they help Howie do. The reader begins to feel he knows Howie as his frustrations with daily home situations are portrayed. The book tells of his special class and all he learns there. When he learns to push his own wheelchair by turning the wheels with his hands, his struggle and his father's reactions are warmly expressed.

Lasker, Joe. *He's My Brother.* Chicago: Whitman, 1974.

A young boy describes the problems in the life of his younger brother, Jamie, who is learning-disabled. Jamie's difficulties arise from rejection by his peers as well as from academic failures. The sibling affection, examples of frustration, and accuracy of information combine to present an excellent interpretation of learning disabilities.

Sobol, H. *My Brother Steven Is Retarded.* New York: Macmillan, 1977.

This story is told through the eyes of 11-year-old Beth. She tells about life with her retarded brother Steven and very openly discusses her feelings about him: how her friends react, and the effect having a retarded child has on a family from her point of view. The book contains photographs of Beth and Steven, their parents, and Beth's friends. It also discusses Steven's special school, the things he learns there, and his probable future. This book will help children who have handicapped friends or relatives deal with their feelings and anxieties.

Stein, S.B. *About Handicaps: An Open Family Book for Parents and Children Together.* New York: Walker, 1974.

The children's text with accompanying pictures is the story of two children, one of whom is physically handicapped, and their relationship as friends. The story acknowledges children's fears and feelings, and the questions they ask in order to understand. The corresponding adult text provides specific details and facts and offers suggestions for handling questions and discussion which might arise. The book encourages speaking about handicapped persons and sharing uncomfortable feelings.

Wolf, B. *Anna's Silent World.* New York: J.B. Lippincott, 1977.

Anna is six years old and profoundly hearing-impaired. She attends a regular first grade and receives therapy in speech, lipreading, and the use of hearing aids. The book portrays her hard work and joys in her daily activities using a simple text and photographs. It describes in detail the efforts needed to help Anna talk, read, and write. The book explains clearly to children why it is difficult to understand deaf children's speech, and how Anna learns, hears, and understands others.

Wolf, B. *Don't Feel Sorry for Paul.* Philadelphia: J.B. Lippincott, 1974.

Although the text is somewhat advanced for children to read on their own, this photojournalistic portrayal is the story of a seven-year-old boy who was born with incompletely formed hands and feet. The story documents Paul's accomplishments and activities during two weeks of his life, which are not unlike those of any boy his age. The book gives a detailed explanation of Paul's three artificial limbs, therapy, challenges, and traumas. The photographs depict Paul and his family and friends in their daily routine. Paul lives, works, and plays successfully in a world made for people without handicaps.

Using Films and Videotapes

The selection criteria for audiovisual resources closely parallel the criteria for choosing good children's books. In addition, it is important that the narrator, who may be the handicapped person, speaks in a manner that is easily understood by the viewer. Not only must professional jargon be avoided; the quality of the voice must not detract from the message that is being conveyed, and the speaker must be fluent. The roles and appearances of the nonhandicapped characters (parents, siblings, friends) must be realistic and natural as well. The following films, all of which meet these criteria, are just a sample of the high-quality products that are available. (For information about rental or purchase, contact the publisher or distributor.)

Feeling Free (six 14 min. black and white films; also available in videocassettes). Scholastic Book Services, 904 Sylvan Avenue, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632.

This PBS television series about handicapped children, now available in film format, was developed by the Workshop on Children's Awareness, a division of the American Institute for Research, in order to develop a climate open to mainstreaming. The programs center around five handicapped children: Ginny is a dwarf, Gordon is deaf, Hollis has cerebral palsy, John has a learning disability, and Laurie is blind. In six films edited from the series, the children and their friends appear in documentaries, question and answer sessions, discussion groups, and games. An accompanying print program is also available.

Get It Together (20 min.; color; also available in videocassette). Pyramid Films, Box 1048, Santa Monica, California 90406.

This film is about a remarkable man and his relationships with those around him. A vigorous, highly physical college student, Jeff Minnebraker, was involved in an automobile accident which left him a paraplegic, paralyzed from the waist down. The film shows how, after his initial pain, rage, and self-pity, Jeff put his life together and achieved a meaningful career and a happy home life.

Hewitt's Just Different (47 min.; color). Time-Life Multimedia, P.O. Box 644, Paramus, New Jersey 07652.

Nobody can understand why 12-year-old Willie spends so much time with Hewitt, his mentally retarded 16-year-old neighbor. Willie has discovered something about Hewitt: he's a valuable friend, and an authority on baseball. The movie deals with peer pressures and emotions which both Hewitt and Willie experience at various times. Appropriate for ten-year-olds and older.

Mimi (11 min.; black and white). Indiana University Audio-Visual Center, Bloomington, Indiana 47401.

Using black-and-white still photos and her own narration, a young woman physically handicapped from birth tells her story. The film deals with various problems: people staring at her in public, her parents not accepting her handicap and instilling false hope that someday she could be normal. She tells the story of her growing up, her unrealistic dreams and hopes, her experiences in a special school, her unpreparedness for the outside world, and her acceptance of herself. This powerful human statement of one person's struggle to cope with a handicap would be appropriate for fourth- and fifth-graders.

My Son, Kevin (24 min.; color). Indiana University Audio-Visual Center, Bloomington, Indiana 47401.

This film deals with the effects a physical deformity has on a boy and his family. Society's view is realistically presented. The boy in the film feels like a freak because he is not accepted and is shunned or stared at; no one makes an effort to meet him, although his intelligence is not affected. The film also shows the family's resentment. The boy's mother is one of more than 8,000 women who took thalidomide--a mild tranquilizer--during the first few months of pregnancy. This is an excellent film to show to any age group although primary students may have trouble with the technical language.

Skating Rink, The (27 min.; color) Learning Corporation of America, 1350 Avenue of the Americas, New York, New York 10019.

This film tells the story of Tuck, a teenage boy with a stuttering problem. The boy regains his self-confidence by becoming an excellent ice skater. His father begins to appreciate Tuck when he sees his son perform on skates. The film is appropriate for explaining minor differences in language patterns to children in the third grade or above.

Using Simulations

The simulations suggested here illustrate just a few of the many strategies for letting children experience what it might feel like to have a particular disability. After each of the activities, students should have the opportunity to share the insights they gained.

Simulating Physical Disabilities

Simulation 1

Objective(s):
--To help children perceive how difficult it can be to perform actions like eating or writing when one lacks fine motor control.

Method(s):
--Let the students try to eat small morsels of food (for example, a dish of fruit cocktail), holding a spoon in a pair of pliers.
--Let the students try to write their names, holding pens or pencils in the pliers.

Simulation 2

Objective(s):
--To show that children with physical handicaps can participate in games.

Method(s):
--Form a circle of five to ten children and pass or throw a ball around the circle. The first time each player misses the ball, that player must put one arm behind his or her back. After a second miss, the player must kneel, still keeping one arm behind the back.

Simulation 3

Objective(s):
--To let children experience what it is like to be confined to a wheelchair.
--To stimulate children to think of ways in which games might be modified so that handicapped persons can participate.

Method(s):
--Ask two children to sit in chairs across the room from one another and throw a ball back and forth.
--If you have access to one or more wheelchairs, let the nonhandicapped students take turns playing ball, sitting in a wheelchair. Encourage them to experiment with maneuvering a wheelchair quickly around the room in order to retrieve the ball.

Simulating Visual Impairments

Simulation 1

Objective(s):
--To enhance students' sensitivity to kinesthetic stimuli.

Method(s):
--Put several different objects into a box or bag. Let students take turns being blindfolded. The blindfolded student reaches into the box or bag, finds an object, and tries to identify it by feel, smell, sound, or perhaps even taste.

Simulation 2

Objective(s):
--To improve the accuracy of verbal expression, giving directions, and following directions.
--To encourage sharing and cooperation.

Method(s):
--Ask the children to form pairs. One child in each pair is blindfolded. The other partner puts several objects into a "grab bag" and attempts to direct the blindfolded partner in retrieving specific items from the bag. Repeat the activity, increasing the number of objects, after both partners have had their turns being blindfolded.
--Let the children form pairs for a "treasure hunt." Again, one partner is blindfolded. The other partner hides an object somewhere in the classroom. From a stationary position, the "sighted" partner must direct the blindfolded partner to the "treasure" by giving careful and precise directions.

Simulation 3

Objective(s):
--To let students experience some of the problems and frustrations of being visually impaired.
--To provide students with the opportunity to experience dependency and trust.
--To provide students with the opportunity to help others and be responsible for others' welfare.

Method(s):
--Ask students to form pairs. Blindfold one member of each pair. Tell the "sighted" students to lead their "blind" partners around the school for five minutes, attempting to be helpful and reassuring. Then let the students reverse roles and repeat the process.

Simulating Hearing Impairments

Simulation 1

Objective(s):
--To let the students experience partial hearing loss.

Method(s)
--Stand in front of the room and whisper instructions to the class. Then pass out copies of a list of questions about the instructions and ask students to fill in the answers, without making inquiries.

Simulating Speech and Language Disorders

Simulation 1

Objective(s):
--To let students experience what it is like to have a speech impairment.

Method(s):
--Let the students take turns reading paragraphs aloud

with one or more wads of dental cotton placed between their lower gums and cheeks. Then give the students ample time to share their perceptions about how it felt to be both the reader and a listener.

Simulation 2

Objective(s):
--To let the students explore ways of communicating without speech.

Method(s)
--Prepare a series of cards, each containing a written instruction (for example, "Write your name in the upper-right-hand corner of a piece of paper"). Ask the students to form pairs. Give a card to one member of each pair and ask that student to communicate the instruction to his or her partner without speaking or writing.

Resources for Teachers

Aiello, B., and I. Crepeau. *The Kids on the Block*. Washington, D.C.: The Kids on the Block, Inc., 1978.

The Kids on the Block is a teaching kit which features six almost life-sized puppets who represent a cross-section of children, some of whom are visibly handicapped. Included are scripts and suggestions for follow-up discussions.

Barnes, E., C. Berrigan, and D. Biklen. *What's the Difference? Teaching Positive Attitudes Toward People With Disabilities*. Syracuse: Human Policy Press, 1978.

This is a book of activities which suggest ways to involve adults and children in experiences to foster contact, empathy, the gaining of information, and responsive behaviors toward disabled people.

Baskin, B.H., and K.H. Harris. *Notes From a Different Drummer: A Guide to Juvenile Fiction Portraying the Handicapped*. New York: R.R. Bowker, 1977.

This book is a comprehensive guide to juvenile fiction written between 1940 and 1975 which depicts handicapped characters. The authors analyze the fiction from historical, cultural, and literary contexts; identify trends and patterns; and present an extensive annotated guide.

Bookbinder, Susan. *Mainstreaming: What Every Child Needs to Know About Disabilities. The Meeting Street School Curriculum for Grades 1-4*. Boston: Exceptional Parent Press, 1978.

This practical guide is designed to facilitate the integration of children with disabilities into public school by preparing the students already in that setting to meet, welcome, and accept their new classmates.

Cleary, M. *Please Know Me As I Am: A Guide to Helping Children Understand the Child With Special Needs.* Sudbury, Mass.: Jerry Cleary, 1975.

This booklet is designed to help the nonhandicapped children gain a greater understanding and appreciation for their handicapped classmates.

Edrington, M.J., S.A. Moss, and J. Young. *Friends.* Monmouth, Ore.: Instructional Development Corporation, 1978.

Designed to help normal children appreciate the problems and achievements of handicapped children, *Friends* tells the stories of eight real-life youngsters with a variety of handicapped conditions. The book, complete with illustrations, photographs, interviews, and exercises, is written for third- to fifth-grade readers.

Pick a Title. Annapolis, Md.: Maryland Department of Education, 1978.

This booklet is a bibliography of children's books and other media about the handicapped.

Shuster, Susan K. "Teaching the Concept of Disability." In Shuster and Eggleston, eds., *Living and Learning With the Handicapped Child.* Arlington, Va.: Media Marketing, 1979.

This audiovisual slide/tape program is based on the assumption that nonhandicapped children have as much to gain from mainstreaming as do the handicapped. It gives concrete examples of strategies teachers can use to help nonhandicapped children welcome and understand their disabled classmates.

7. ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM MATERIALS

Because the social studies curriculum is an essential tool for teaching about differences in people and groups, it provides an appropriate context for both educating students about handicapping conditions and easing the process of mainstreaming children into the regular classroom. The potential use of social studies materials for exposing students to issues related to handicapping conditions should not be underestimated. Introducing students to cultural and ethnic differences is an important function of the social studies curriculum. Concepts pertaining to the handicapped can be incorporated easily into instruction about the recognition and understanding of likenesses among and differences between people and groups. The first section of this chapter analyzes the treatment of handicapping conditions and provisions for the handicapped learner in widely used social studies elementary textbook series; the second section describes two federally funded curriculum development projects.

Social Studies Textbooks

Two questions were paramount in our analysis of elementary social studies textbook programs: (1) to what extent, and in what context, are handicapped persons depicted in the student materials and (2) to what extent are the materials designed or adaptable for individual differences in sensory, motor, or learning capacity?

The authors inspected and analyzed the elementary social studies programs published by seven major companies: American Book; Follett; Ginn; Houghton Mifflin; McGraw-Hill; Scott, Foresman; and Silver Burdett.* With the exception of the Ginn series, of which only the texts for levels K-5 were reviewed, the texts for grades K-6 from all seven publishers were examined page by page. (The findings of this analysis are summarized in Figure 4.) Both teachers' and students' editions were examined in order to determine whether examples of handicaps were presented, what messages they conveyed (i.e., goals, attitudes), and how the teacher was directed to incorporate the examples into a learning context. In addition, the materials were reviewed to note

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Portions of this chapter were written by Cynthia L. Groman.

* It should be noted that the social studies series selected for review had already been developed or were in the process of development when Public Law 94-142 was passed.

Figure 4

PREVALENCE OF HANDICAPPED CONTENT IN SOCIAL STUDIES SERIES

	American Book	Follett	Ginn (K-5)	Houghton Mifflin	McGraw-Hill	Silver Burdett	Scott, Foresman
Pictures of the handicapped			* (One picture)	* (several in each level)	* (one)	* (several in level 3)	* (one per level)
Articles about the handicapped			*	*			*
Supplemental tasks for learning			*	*			*
Grade level			1**	1, 2, 4**	3	1, 3, 4	2, 4, 6**

* Handicapped content is present in that series.
** All three characteristics were present in all grade level materials indicated.

whether provisions for differences in individual learning skills had been included (see Figure 5).

Some excellent examples of incorporating material about the handicapped can be found in the Houghton Mifflin series, Windows on Our World, in the texts for grades 1, 2, and 5. These examples are useful because they present the handicapped realistically--as normal individuals with special needs. Suggestions for dealing with and teaching about several different handicaps are presented for the teacher. For example, students are acquainted with the American sign language alphabet so that they can communicate with hearing-impaired friends. A photograph of two children communicating through sign language accompanies the article. The teacher is encouraged to teach a few letters of sign language to the class. The value of friendship and the goal of communication with others are important in the social milieu of the handicapped.

The Houghton Mifflin series includes some provisions for individual differences in learning ability. The emphasis is on "learning by doing"--tapping unique abilities, dealing with differences in learning patterns. However, no specific mention of disabilities is incorporated into the learning sets; instructions are given for small-group activities and individual tasks, and most activities seem oriented toward motivated, advantaged children. Modifications for disadvantaged or exceptional children are not specified.

The Scott, Foresman series texts for grades 2, 4, and 6 also contain appropriate content about the handicapped. In one picture sequence, students are introduced to "Bob," who is using a braille typewriter. The focus of the chapter is on differences and similarities in people and their activities. The importance of understanding differences in others is stressed in addition to the goal of communication with others. The teacher is encouraged to read aloud stories about the handicapped, discussing the five senses and showing students examples of braille. The series makes allowance for individual differences by describing various activities as "easy" (all students should be capable of doing), "interesting" (geared for whole-class or small-group projects), and "challenging" (more thought-provoking, time-consuming projects). No adaptations for exceptional children are specified.

Another excellent example of incorporating information about the handicapped into social studies content appears on page 25 of Ginn's first-grade book, *Our School*, which stresses recognition of the handicapped as functional people in society. In addition to analyzing the photograph presented, the teacher and students are instructed to discuss the values and attitudes held by handicapped persons and others in society. Provisions for individual differences are found under the heading "Guiding, reading, and learning" in all the texts. However, there are no specific references to handicapped students other than those who have reading difficulties. In these instances, the teacher is encouraged to use word drills, emphasize listening skills, and pair unfamiliar words with familiar words and pictures.

The Silver Burdett series contains several superior photographs of handicapped children engaged in everyday activities. One in particular--

Figure 5

PROVISIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN SOCIAL STUDIES SERIES

Series	Provisions Present	Type(s) of Provisions
American Book	*	Suggestions for modifying instruction included for the following groups: visually impaired, hearing impaired, perceptual motor problems. Concern for motivation reflected in suggestions for use of tape recorders, peer teaching of simple tasks, flash cards.
Follett	*	Strategies for teaching rated to accommodate different levels of learners. Ratings: * = low achiever, ** = average, *** = challenges students. Controlled reading levels, suggestions for modifying evaluative tools for low achievers.
Ginn	*	Cursory attention to children with reading problems; more focus on remediation. "Guiding, reading, and learning" tips; word associations, emphasis on listening skills.
Houghton Mifflin	*	Emphasis on unique (geared to more-talented students) abilities, individual needs, learning by doing, differences in learning patterns, small-group and whole-group tasks.
McGraw-Hill		
Scott, Foresman	*	Ratings: easy, interesting, challenging.
Silver Burdett	**	Contains slow-learner sections. Role playing and concern for motivation very explicit (i.e., gross motor activities, motivation factors, task orientation).

* Provisions are present in all levels of the series.
** Provisions are present starting at third level.

of a boy in a wheelchair, costumed for Halloween--could be an excellent starting point for discussing the ways in which handicapped individuals adapt to society. However, the Silver Burdett books contain no explicit suggestions for using the texts with handicapped students, although the editions for grades 3-6 suggest special provisions for individual learning differences. Indeed, of all the series Silver Burdett appears to be the most explicit in providing for "individual differences" by including activities for individuals with ". . . one or more of several educational and personal characteristics"; for example, poor reading, poor study habits, short attention span, low IQ, and perceptual motor problems. Suggested strategies emphasize role play, learning directions, and basic motivation techniques.

Although the Follett, McGraw-Hill, and American Book series effectively utilize the themes of cultural and individual differences, they include no specific content about the handicapped. However, superior provisions for individual differences in learners are included in the American Book series, which suggests alternative strategies and special tasks for the visually and hearing-impaired and for students with perceptual motor problems. One-to-one instruction, pairing handicapped students with nonhandicapped students for certain tasks, step-by-step activities, the use of tape recorders, and emphasis on thinking skills are a few of the provisions suggested.

Follett maintains a carefully controlled reading level for its series ". . . to assure that each book contains material that communicates rather than frustrates." The special provisions for students with reading disabilities include "to help you read" activities on an introductory readiness page and a symbol code for rating the level of difficulty of the activities in each book (* = low achievers; ** = average students; *** = superior students). Follett also recommends that the construction of evaluative methods be adapted to meet the levels of achievement expected by below-level students. Other than for the broad category of "low achievers," however, no modifications for handicapped students are provided.

In the McGraw-Hill series, no provisions for individual differences are specified in the introductory pages of the textbooks. However, each grade level contains a "Teacher's Packet" which supplements and enriches various lessons. A section titled "Reading Hints" is incorporated into each lesson to build word meaning and concept development skills.

In conclusion, although all seven of the series reviewed make some provision for individual differences in learners, most contain few or no specific suggestions for modifying activities to fit the needs and capacities of handicapped students. Content about handicapped people and handicapping conditions is sparse; two of the programs contain no such content whatsoever. Clearly, more material about the handicapped ought to be presented in all seven series. In addition, special provisions for handicapped students who have been mainstreamed must be incorporated by the authors and publishers of social studies texts in order to ensure appropriate and equal educational opportunity for all students.

Federally Funded Curriculum Projects

Project MAVIS

An excellent example of an effort to adapt social studies curriculum materials for a particular group of handicapped students is Project MAVIS (Materials Adaptations for Visually Impaired Students in the Social Studies), a three-year research and demonstration project funded by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped (BEH), U.S. Office of Education (1977-1980) and sponsored by the Social Science Education Consortium. The primary goal of MAVIS is to facilitate the mainstreaming of visually impaired students by providing effective social studies learning materials and experiences.

The MAVIS project has adapted and field tested portions of five sets of social studies curriculum materials. The original student materials have been prepared in braille, large print, and audiotape; descriptions of pictures have been added and tactile illustrations provided; and the large-print editions include word lists at the beginning of each unit as well as high-quality photographic reproductions of graphic material. The teachers' guides to the materials have been modified to facilitate the integration of the visually impaired student.

Practical information to enhance the teacher's effectiveness with a visually impaired child in a mainstreamed setting has been compiled in a set of six sourcebooks. These resources reflect the concern of the developers that teachers need background information about the handicapping condition in addition to knowledge about modifying instructional techniques.

For more information about Project MAVIS, contact the Social Science Education Consortium, 855 Broadway, Boulder, Colorado, 80302 (303/492-8154).

The Social Learning Curriculum

The Social Learning Curriculum is an excellent activity-oriented social studies program designed specifically for elementary school, middle school, and junior high school youngsters with cognitive disadvantages who are labeled "mentally retarded." The curriculum is an outgrowth of a research and development grant funded by BEH in the late 1960s. Although it was originally designed for the educable mentally retarded child in a special class, its organization and goals make it very suitable for a regular class in which retarded children have been mainstreamed. The content focus combines the social learning concepts of self-identification, self-perception, and interaction with thinking skills (analysis and synthesis) and subject-area skills.

For more information about the Social Learning Curriculum, contact Charles E. Merrill, Publishers, 1300 Alum Creek Road, Columbus, Ohio 43216.

* * * * *

Curriculum-development efforts to enhance social studies achievement of handicapped learners are in their infancy. However, the need for such materials is very apparent, and it is to be hoped that both federal funding agencies and publishers of social studies curriculum materials will respond to this need.

EPILOGUE

As we reflect on the task we have just completed, we find ourselves overwhelmed. We have exerted much effort in trying to compile and communicate suggestions that will help elementary teachers integrate mainstreamed children into the regular classroom setting. At the beginning we suspected that this task would be awesome; we have confirmed our initial suspicion. But even more awesome, more challenging, and more demanding is the task that faces such a teacher on a day-in, day-out basis. Mainstreaming is a very difficult and complicated educational effort; whether it succeeds or fails will depend on classroom teachers.

Recognizing the difficulties of mainstreaming leads us to emphasize, again, the importance of a support system for teachers in mainstreamed classrooms. These teachers must be able to freely ask for help and easily obtain it. Supporting personnel in the form of guidance counselors, speech and language therapists, building principals, social workers, physical and occupational therapists, and resource teachers, to mention a few, must be ready and willing to help. Staff development programs must be provided, both before mainstreaming is implemented and after it is in place. If such sustained support is not available for the classroom teacher, handicapped youngsters are probably better off in special classrooms.

Finally, we believe that the importance of social studies for mainstreamed children must not be underemphasized. Too often, handicapped children experience social isolation. Carefully designed social studies programs can remedy this condition. In social studies classes, children learn how to manage in their environment; they practice critical-thinking skills, human-relations skills, and decision making. It is in the social studies classroom that children learn to recognize the importance of their values and those of others. The potential of all children for becoming responsible, contributing citizens depends in large part on a sound social studies education.

A.S.O.
S.K.S.

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RELATED RESOURCES IN ERIC AND ECER

Computer searches of the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) and Exceptional Child Education Resources (ECER) data bases yielded the resources briefly described in this section. The availability of each of the resources from ECER is indicated in the citation. If your local library does not have an ERIC journal article that you want, you may write for a reprint to University Microfilms International, 300 North Zeeb Rd. (P.O. Box 1346), Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106. The following information is needed: name of periodical or journal, title of article, name(s) of author(s), date of issue, volume number, and numbers of pages to be copied. A single reprint costs $6.00; there is a $1.00 charge for each additional reprint. All orders must be accompanied by payment in full, plus postage.

Journal Articles in ERIC

Boyer, Ernest L. "Public Law 94-142: A Promising Start?" *Educational Leadership* 36, no. 5 (February 1979), pp. 298-301. EJ 196 157.

The author explains the history, requirements, and some of the effects of PL 94-142, which is intended to help schools provide equity and quality in education for children who need more care, attention, and understanding than most.

Chapin, Richard C. "The Legal Rights of Children With Handicapping Conditions and the Process of Mainstreaming." *Peabody Journal of Education* 56, no. 1 (October 1978), pp. 18-23. EJ 198 718.

The mainstreaming of handicapped children is presented from the point of view of the legal rights of children. The issue involves all levels of government in a constantly changing relationship.

Culhan, Barry R., and Richard Curwin. "There's a Deaf Child in My Class." *Learning* 7, no. 2 (October 1978), pp. 111-17. EJ 197 197.

Specific suggestions are made to help a teacher communicate successfully with a deaf child.

Enright, Robert D., and Sara J. Sutterfield. "Treating the Regular Class Child in the Mainstreaming Process: Increasing Social

Cognitive Development." *Psychology in the Schools* 16, no. 1 (1979), pp. 110-18. EJ 195 731.

It is shown that both moral judgment and interpersonal conceptions (two cognitive developmental domains) seem to be related to adequate social adjustment. Recent empirical studies have demonstrated success in raising children's level of reasoning in these areas. Direct applications of these recent findings to the mainstreaming problem are discussed.

Gainer, Ruth Straus, and Eiline Kukuk. "Something to Sing About." *Childhood Education* 55, no. 3 (January 1979), pp. 141-47. EJ 198 390.

This article describes an elementary school art program involving mainstreaming, with a framework which emphasizes the development of a positive self-concept.

Godsave, Bruce F. "What Not to Do for the Hearing Impaired Child." *Learning* 7, no. 2 (October 1978), pp. 117-18. EJ 197 198.

The problems of dealing with a child who must wear a hearing aid are discussed, and the importance of cooperation between parent and teacher is emphasized.

Gregory, George P. "Using the Newspaper in the Mainstreamed Classroom." *Social Education* 43, no. 2 (February 1979), pp. 140-43. EJ 197 061.

The author reviews arguments for and against mainstreaming and presents strategies for using newspapers in elementary-school mainstreamed social studies classrooms. He gives examples of newspaper learning activities related to community affairs, social competencies, safety, and prevocational skills.

Hatch, Eric J., et al. "The Comprehensive Evaluation for Handicapped Children." *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling* 13, no. 3 (February 1979), pp. 171-187. EJ 197 549.

Since the passage of PL 94-142, it is especially important for counselors to know evaluation methods. This article presents a description of the usual sequence of a total assessment followed by a brief description of the role of each of the team members. A more technical overview of comprehensive diagnostic or prescriptive methods for the exceptional child is then provided.

Hendrickson, Barbara. "Teachers Make Mainstreaming Work." *Learning* 7, no. 2 (October 1978), pp. 104-110. EJ 197 195.

Three cases of successfully mainstreaming children with physical handicaps and mild retardation are described.

Leone, Peter, and Paul Retish. "A Handicapped Kid in My Class?" *Social Studies* 69, no. 1 (January/February 1978), pp. 18-20. EJ 176 389.

This article suggests adaptations of curriculum and awareness activities for students to prepare them for the arrival of handicapped students who are to be mainstreamed into the general public school environment.

Lockwood, Ann Vevier. "Accommodating Learning Disabilities: Creating the Least Restrictive Environment." *Illinois Schools Journal* 58, no. 4 (Winter 1978/79), pp. 33-36. EJ 200 648.

Presented in this article are various strategies for integrating learning-disabled children into academic programs. Suggestions are made in the areas of mathematics, classroom environment, social studies, and science.

Lowe, Armin. "Mainstream Education for Deaf Pupils." *Special Education: Forward Trends* 5, no. 4 (December 1978), p. 19. EJ 196 261.

The article describes the mainstreaming of hearing-impaired and deaf students in Germany, Austria, and Switzerland.

Massie, Dorothy. "Update on Education of the Handicapped." *Today's Education* 67, no. 3 (September/October 1978), pp. 60-62. EJ 198 775.

Problems faced by teachers and schools in educating handicapped students are described, and recommendations for improving the situation are offered.

Olson, Myrna R. "Orienting the Blind Student." *Learning* 7, no. 2 (October 1978), pp. 110-11. EJ 197 196.

Guidelines are provided for the teacher who has a blind student in the class.

Perlman, Marsha, and Vivian Dubrovin. "Kevin's a Typical Child--and Blind." *Instructor* 88, no. 7 (February 1979), pp. 175-77. EJ 194 793.

This article describes the experiences of a blind sixth-grade boy who has been in regular classes since kindergarten and briefly discusses things that his parents and school personnel have done to help him adjust to his handicap and function as a typical child.

Putnam, Rosemary W. "Books Can Introduce Your Class to the Mainstreamed Child." *Learning* 7, no. 2 (October 1978), pp. 118-120. EJ 197 199.

A list of books dealing with handicapped children is provided for reading by children in a regular classroom to help them understand and accept their handicapped peers.

Rebore, Ronald W. "Public Law 94-142 and the Building Principal." *NASSP Bulletin* 63, no. 426 (April 1979), pp. 26-30. EJ 197 924.

The author suggests ways to establish a frame of reference within which a principal may conceptualize and begin to implement Public Law 94-142.

Reese-Dukes, Judson L., and Elizabeth H. Stokes. "Social Acceptance of Elementary Educable Mentally Retarded Pupils in the Regular

Classroom." *Education and Training of the Mentally Retarded* 13, no. 4 (December 1978), pp. 356-361. EJ 198 066.

The social acceptance of 64 normal and mainstreamed educable mentally retarded fifth- and sixth-graders was studied and compared by means of peer ratings.

Reich, Carol, et al. "Models of Integration." *B.C. Journal of Special Education* 2, no. 3 (Fall 1978), pp. 215-225. EJ 196 193.

This article describes a variety of integration programs available for mainstreaming hearing-impaired children into the regular classroom.

Rocha, Ramon M., and George P. Gregory. "The Resource Room: Delivery Systems for Mainstreaming in Elementary Social Studies." *Social Education* 43, no. 1 (January 1979), pp. 63-64. EJ 193 309.

This article outlines the responsibilities of the resource-room teacher as support person and diagnostician and provides the Individual Education Plan (IEP) chart legally required for children receiving special education services.

Rocha, Ramon M., and Howard G. Sanford. "Mainstreaming: Democracy in Action." *Social Education* 43, no. 1 (January 1979), pp. 59-62. EJ 193 308.

The authors contend that the mainstreaming effort can lead to a breaking down of stereotypes and enables all citizens to participate as contributing members of society. An elementary-level unit, "Likenesses and Differences Among People in the Community, Nation, and the World," designed to identify similarities among individuals and to minimize differences, is described.

Rockoff, Edward. "Classroom Utilization of Ancillary Personnel: Delivery Systems for Mainstreaming in Elementary Social Studies." *Social Education* 43, no. 1 (January 1979), pp. 67-68. EJ 193 311.

The author proposes inservice training on the utilization of ancillary personnel (special education teacher, school nurse, hearing and speech clinician, guidance counselor) in assisting the social studies teacher with the mainstreamed student. He outlines how ancillary personnel may aid in preparing students for entrance into the regular classroom, developing curriculum, teaching and evaluation, and providing continuing assistance.

Sanford, Howard G. "Prescriptive Teaching: Delivery Systems for Mainstreaming in Elementary Social Studies." *Social Education* 43, no. 1 (January 1979), pp. 64-67. EJ 193 310.

This article outlines basic components of a prescriptive teaching program (assessment, curricular objectives, and individualized instruction) and notes the implications that each of these components has for the handicapped student in a mainstreaming environment. Two charts illustrate criteria involved in prescriptive teaching or individualized education.

Shiman, David A. "When Mainstreaming Comes In, Are the Poor Left Out?" *Learning* 7, no. 2 (October 1978), pp. 120-21. EJ 197 200.

Concern is voiced that, given pressure to spend individual time with handicapped students, teachers will pay less attention to the needs of the nonhandicapped low achievers who come predominately from the poor and the ethnic minorities.

Skindrud, Karl, et al. "In-Service Preparation for Mainstreaming: A Continuum of Strategies for Instructional Planning (IEP) Teams." *Teacher Education and Special Education* 2, no. 1 (Fall 1978), pp. 41-52. EJ 199 606.

An inservice model for mainstreaming mildly handicapped children is described which combines competitive, accommodative, and problem-solving approaches.

Vandivier, Stella Sue, and Phillip L. Vandivier. "To Sink or Swim in the Mainstream." *Clearing House* 52, no. 6 (February 1979), pp. 277-79. EJ 199 140.

The authors review some of the shortcomings in schools trying to translate mainstreaming theory into practice: lack of a full range of special placement options, overreliance on consultation and resource teacher programs, and failure to furnish adequate special instruction in regular classrooms.

Resources in ECER

Adams, Anne H., et al. *Mainstreaming Language Arts and Social Studies: Special Ideas and Activities for the Whole Class* (1977). EC 191 934. Available from Goodyear Publishing Co., 1640 S. Fifth St., Santa Monica, California 90401 (107 pp.; $8.95).

This guide presents ideas for teaching language arts and social studies to elementary classes in which handicapped children have been mainstreamed. Use of the activities with the whole class is stressed. Information on daily objectives, teacher preparation, and activities is provided for 36 language arts themes (such as learning the names of people in the classroom, reading different signs and symbols, using sentences effectively and learning to enjoy poetry) and 36 social studies tasks.

Newberger, Darryl A. "Situational Socialization: An Affective Interaction Component of the Mainstreaming Reintegration Construct" (1976). EC 100 948. Available from University Microfilms International, P.O. Box 1346, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106 (196 pp.; $22.00 hard copy; $11.00 microfiche; cat. no. 77-1521).

A paradigm for effectively reintegrating mild to moderately handicapped learners with their regular classmates in instructional learning environments was developed in several steps: formulation of a rationale for an affective social interaction component to be built into existing and succeeding mainstreaming programs; deriving concepts for the development of a paradign from existing theory

research in the interrelated areas of social interaction, affective education, and mainstreaming studies and programs with handicapped learners; presentation of a paradigm of "situational socialization"; and formation of generic teaching competencies for regular and special educators in mainstreamed environments.

Salisbury, Geoffrey. *Open Education Handbook for Teachers of the Blind* (1974). EC 092 151. Available from Royal Commonwealth Society for the Blind, Commonwealth House, Haywards Heath, Sussex, RH 16 3AZ, United Kingdom (58 pp.; 50 pence).

Intended for teachers of blind children, the booklet describes classroom methods, special equipment, and braille and examines some of the difficulties which are regularly experienced by teachers and students in a new "open education" project in which handicapped children are taught in regular schools. The qualities that a successful leader in open education must possess, methods or organizing schemes and their practical application, and the problems likely to be encountered by the teacher are discussed; and practical suggestions on how to conduct special classes in the following subjects are given: social and environmental studies, physical education, handwork, gardening and agriculture, mathematics, braille, and mobility. A final section is devoted to teacher training in open and special education. Appendixes include an outline of a special education service, a table on the classification of physically and mentally handicapped children with recommendations for medical and educational care, and a sample open education record chart.

Techniques to Aid Adaption of Social Studies Curriculum for Mainstreamed Exceptional Children (1977). EC 111 566. Available from Huntsville City Schools, P.O. Box 1256, Huntsville, Alabama 35807 (videocassette; $20.00).

This videotape discusses some techniques to aid in the adaptation of social studies curricula for mainstreamed handicapped elementary school students. Aspects covered include how the teacher can use the learner's strongest "modabilities" to teach the individual, and social studies materials for the elementary grades. A lesson study plan is also presented.